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COMMENTS on

Harry W. Colmery's
article:

"*The American Legion's Commander Discusses Training for Good Citizenship*"

THE American Legion's platform for a program of Americanism in the schools of the United States, as interpreted by Harry W. Colmery, national commander of the Legion, was presented in the March issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE. We offer here a series of seven short comments by our readers on Mr. Colmery's article.

By WILLIAM GELLERMANN

School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. Mr. Gellermann has made a lengthy study of the American Legion's activities in the field of education.

Most of Mr. Colmery's article is window dressing.¹ He makes numerous general statements with which nearly all will agree. However, fine and admirable phrases in behalf of "freedom of speech and learning" should not close our eyes to his suggestion that "if teachers are 'to lean' to any side it should be to the American point of view."

He wants children to "understand the blessings of freedom and liberty as we know them" and urges that education "be placed

¹The American Legion has found an able advocate in Harry W. Colmery, present national commander. Mr. Colmery is an excellent public relations man. By way of illustration, see his able defense of the American Legion's Washington Lobby, published in the September 1932 issue of the *American Legion Monthly*, p. 20 ff.

in the hands of those who understand and believe in the principles of true Americanism." He indicates that if teaching is done "by loyal Americans, public faith in America and the American system can not be shaken" and implies that lack of such faith is to be attributed to "those who would over-throw our government and our institutions."

These are the key words and sentences in the article if we are to understand what Mr. Colmery really means. They define the limits within which we may expect to find his belief in "freedom of speech and learning" evidenced in any program of positive action.

It is at this point of definition that confusion arises between those who are satisfied with the status quo and those who desire a program of social reconstruction. The freedom which Mr. Colmery would allow teachers is a freedom within limits which he has not taken the trouble to define specifically. But it is clear that such "freedom" would involve a bolstering-up of what he conceives to be "the American system" and a combating of what he conceives to be "transitory alien systems." And again, he does not define his terms.

Commander Colmery's article is typical of recent expressions on the part of American Legion leaders. Liberals have been so

anxious to observe a broadening of the social ideals of the American Legion that they have eagerly welcomed these general statements by American Legion spokesmen concerning freedom of speech and free education; they have failed to see the implication of restrictive phrases which have sapped these generalities of any genuine significance.²

Liberals have failed to note that "the voice is Jacob's voice, but the hands are the hands of Esau."

Commander Colmery states that the American Legion has not tried to determine school curriculum. Nevertheless, the fact is that the American Legion, in its Americanism program for 1937, directs its 11,000 post education committees to "contact school officials . . . with reference to placing the Legion's educational activities in schools" and declares that "a complete review of these activities will be found in the *Americanism Manual*."³

Although the educational value of the suggestions contained in the *Americanism Manual*⁴ may be questioned, there can be no question that they deal very definitely with curriculum content. Perhaps these suggestions are motivated by that "faith in the loyalty and ability of our American educators as a whole," to which Mr. Colmery refers in his article, but I think not.

The assertion that the interest of the American Legion in education has been that of "a lot of meddling Matties" who have sought to tell educators what to do, is one which is not far amiss, as many a school man can readily testify from personal experience. Mr. Colmery's description at this point, although in the form of a denial, is astonishingly accurate; the need for denial

² For example, see the *Social Frontier*, November 1936, V. III, no. 20, p. 56.

³ *The National Legionnaire* (official publication of the American Legion published monthly at National Headquarters, Indianapolis, Indiana) December 1936, p. 5.

⁴ *The Americanism Manual* (Revised January 1935). Prepared and distributed by the National Americanism Commission, National Headquarters, the American Legion, Indianapolis, Indiana.

is, in a sense, an affirmation. He protests too much.

By PHILIP W. L. COX

Professor of Education, New York University

All liberals welcome the spirit and intention of Commander Colmery and of that section of legionnaires and of the American public which he represents.

It is true as the author notes, that the American Legion has consistently coöperated with national, State, and local school authorities and educational organizations toward the improvement of many services and coöperative undertakings in the schools and communities. It is true, furthermore, that many of the dramatic interferences with individual liberties and with freedom of teaching which have been attributed to the Legion have in fact been the expressions of individual legionnaires or of local groups, occasionally Posts, of them.

The public in general and liberals in particular have frequently not discriminated between official and unofficial and even irresponsible acts and statements attributed to the Legion.

Nevertheless, much as we welcome the olive branch and greatly as we approve the generous spirit of confidence, support, and coöperation which now characterize the attitude and behavior of the American Legion in its relations both with the schools and with non-conformists in our citizenry, there remain areas wherein further exploration and understanding are needed. It is because the present spirit of intelligent and tolerant Americanism has so largely replaced the atmosphere surcharged with emotionalized nationalism, that expressions of opinion such as this symposium are welcome.

We need to probe the question of democracy and the American way somewhat more thoroughly than President Pratt of the National Education Association appears to

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have done in the quotation cited by Mr. Colmery; more thoroughly, too, than Mr. Colmery himself seems prepared to go on behalf of the Legion.

In its essence, American democracy is a faith and a way of life. It has meaning, and need, only because society involves a very complex array of social relationships involving individual and party and class rivalries and antagonisms, and innovations and experiments both wise and unwise that are inherent in social changes due to geography, technology, and the mixture of differing social inheritances. Democracy calls for tolerance and flexibility, for it assumes that both proposals for innovations and resistances to change are inherent in a free society. It is a faith that such differences in interest and belief can and must depend on persuasion and argument and temporary acquiescence in majority and plurality decisions.

Within the limits of the code of private and public rights, American democracy denies place to violence or coercion even on the part of its government; it cannot tolerate private violence and coercion, whether of an individual, a vigilante group, or a vested economic body.

With these statements as generalizations, Commander Colmery would, I feel sure, agree. If they are true, however, no group is justified in demanding the exclusion of arguments for communism on the ground that it is un-American, nor the exclusion of Roman Catholicism because it is un-American, nor the exclusion of pacifism because it is un-American, nor the exclusion of foreign languages because they are un-American. If they are unsound or undesirable they will be impotent to affect American life harmfully; if they are sound and desirable they will find their places in the endless compromises and adjustments which are the warp and woof of American life.

Let us protect democracy as a way of life; let us trust the intelligence and good will of the American people. We need not then

fear the advocates of any doctrines or policies or practices, strange as they may seem to those of us who have inherited other ideologies and customs.

By WALTER S. MCCOLLEY

*Contributor to educational journals,
teacher in the high school, Dixon,
Illinois*

Commander Colmery's discussion of the American Legion's position on the teaching of Communism in the schools is indicative of the general lay attitude toward public education. It is gratifying that the Legion has so much "faith in the loyalty and ability of American educators as a whole," but it is unfortunate that that faith is so abstract and so clouded in generalities.

It looks as if the Legion, if the Commander is speaking for the organization, has adopted the technique of the great T. R., who liked to speak softly and carry a big stick.

There are several questions which should be raised in comment upon the Commander's article.

Upon what grounds may it be stated definitely that "obviously the training ground for good citizenship is and always must be in the schoolroom and the college lecture hall"? Prior to the Commander's pronouncement the theory was rather generally accepted that habits are strongly established in the pre-school years of child life. The Commander is discounting entirely the influence of the home and the playground.

There is an element of clairvoyance in the Commander's dictum in which he "knows that nothing but harm will result from any movement which seeks to throttle or darken a complete and free education." Inasmuch as this complete and free education is an ideal as yet unachieved on the earth, Commander Colmery's statement belongs in the realm of mysticism.

The Commander says that if teachers are "to lean" to any side in the teaching of Com-

munism it should be toward the "American point of view." There may be, technically, an American Legion point of view—but what is "the American point of view"? Is it a Pharisaical conviction that we hold the key, in our admittedly imperfect political and economic system, to human happiness?

Passing over other hasty generalizations and faulty conclusions in the Commander's article with a blanket reminder that nobody under the sun knows what are the principles of "true Americanism," it becomes apparent that even if it were desirable to follow the Napoleonic method of promoting loyalty through an American Catechism, nobody except the Legion would know where to start.

If Commander Colmery would outline the "principles of true Americanism" and would then suggest how these principles should be taught in our schools, he would render an inestimably valuable service to his organization, to the teaching profession and to the country at large.

By HEBER HINDS RYAN

*Principal of Wisconsin High School,
Madison, Wisconsin*

It is a pleasure to read something written by the Commander of the American Legion for teachers to read. In the tone of the article as well as in its authorship one senses an authoritative quality which is most satisfying. It is to be hoped that teachers will read it and appreciate it, and that legionnaires will read it and recognize the good sense which characterizes it.

There is a pleasing modesty in Mr. Colmery's appraisal of the Legion's own achievement and competence in the field of education. He recognizes the difference between the ability to want a thing like good citizenship and the ability to develop it. And with respect to the latter he concedes the better judgment to the teaching profession. Whether we have that better

judgment or not, we would like to think that we have it; and it encourages and inspires us to hear somebody say so.

The Commander is to be congratulated upon his distinction between "teaching" and "advocacy" and upon the stand that he takes in favor of having dangerous topics treated in the classroom rather than in the alley. He accepts the principle that the first step in learning to distinguish the right thing from the wrong thing is that of turning on both the strongest possible light. The great majority of young people in this country are convinced that our form of government is the best; and the only thing that I know of which seriously shakes their faith is the misguided attempt on the part of some persons to keep them from finding out about other possibilities. Mr. Colmery is to be commended for his sane and constructive attitude on this point.

Many years ago the human race was promised that the truth would eventually make it free. That conception of education seems still to be the best bet.

By EARL R. GABLER

Associate Professor of Education, New York University

Mr. Colmery has set forth in a general way the American Legion's attitude on training for good citizenship in the school. It is interesting to note that the interpretation given to citizenship conforms to the lay point of view.

While school people generally think of citizenship training through courses in history and civics, a more comprehensive view of citizenship is generally assumed by the public at large. To the American Legion, training to be a good citizen means learning to read, to write and to understand all areas in which the school offers instruction. In fact, this is the interpretation that the courts have always given to the term. In the instance where the legal status of a sub-

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ject was involved, if it contributed to good citizenship the courts ruled in favor of it. The history of such cases reveals that at some time or another all courses offered in the secondary schools have received a justification on this basis.

The legion's attitude toward those school problems intimately concerned with citizenship training, i.e., controversial issues, indoctrination and dictatorial procedures, is certainly welcomed by the secondary-school teachers. However it is doubtful whether teachers will find much solace in this attitude, or much definite guidance.

Take, for example, Communism: Mr. Colmery remarks that American youths should protect themselves against Communist propaganda by seeing through the classroom discussion that Communism is repugnant to American principles. Suppose that in this classroom discussion of Communism, it is found to have some features that are decidedly superior to Democracy and that conform more closely to true American principles. What then? Would the American Legion cry out "indoctrination"?

By WILLIAM W. HINCKLEY
Chairman of the American Youth Congress

All Americans are agreed that a system of free public education is essential if our democracy is to be preserved. The only question is: "How free should our schools be?"

Obviously, if public education is to be of any use to the future citizens of our democracy, it must prepare them to face the world as it exists today and to cope with the major problems which are likely to beset our Nation during their lifetimes. Every issue which confronts our society and our country, which demands our attention daily in the press, the radio, and the newsreel, should be aired, fully and fearlessly, in the classroom, according to the mental capacities of the various age levels.

"Controversial issues" should not be

avoided. On the contrary, they should be stressed. The arguments of all sides should be explained, explored, and discussed. How else will the young generation of Americans be prepared to solve these problems in the really intelligent, democratic, American way, when they are old enough to go to the polls?

Much of what Mr. Colmery has to say about education is highly commendable. His remarks for the most part are in the best American tradition of free speech, free press, and freedom of learning.

It is not enough, however, as the national commander of the American Legion would have us believe, to teach young people only the "blessings" and "benefits" of our present American society as an antidote to some mythical dangerous foreign "ism."

In the first place, that would be an ineffective antidote. As soon as the pupils discovered that all the "blessings" and "benefits" were not present in real life, they would feel that our schools had put something over on them.

Second, Mr. Colmery's suggestion is hardly "American." The keyword in the history of our national growth has been "progress," not "stagnation."

American progress has largely been achieved by a healthy discontent with our current state, a continuous drive for better things, bigger things, nobler things. Our national pride, as distinct from that of many other nations, has never consisted of satisfaction with things as they are, with the achievements of the past, or with the existing standards of our people's life, liberty and happiness.

We have always sought to move ahead. That is the true American spirit, and that is the ideal we must set up for all young Americans. Our schools have a patriotic duty to inform the Nation's youth of all our faults as well as of all our national blessings. The future citizens of this country should know what evils must be conquered and corrected if America is to be kept on

the road of democracy and progress.

Our young people should be told of our ten million unemployed, our huge crime and delinquency bill, our slum housing, our tenant-farm problem, as well as of the magnificent opportunity which our country offers in men and material resources for a possible life of abundance for all. They will be able to develop a real American standard of living only if they are shown, honestly and realistically, the problems they must face and the obstacles they must overcome.

But our system of public education must also be free in quite another sense if the American ideal of "equal opportunity for all" is to be achieved. Today five million young Americans are out of school and out of work. Millions have dropped out of school because they cannot afford to continue. They do not have enough money for food, clothing, books and carfare. Thousands are denied a college education because they do not even have the opportunity to work their way through college.

Under such conditions, our much vaunted system of democratic, free public education is neither democratic nor free. Today, over forty per cent of the young people in this country who are of high-school age are not in school. America cannot afford to have its educational system based on lines of class privilege instead of democratic opportunity.

The American Youth Congress campaigns for the passage of the American Youth Act, now before the United States Congress. It is a measure which provides Federal scholarships for needy high-school students, academic work projects for college students, a Federal system of vocational training and guidance, and special public-work projects for jobless youth between 16 and 25. The bill does not ask for a handout for youth. It seeks to give young Americans a chance to contribute their physical and intellectual energies to the development of our country through the jobs and education which are now denied to them.

It is designed to make "free public educa-

tion" and "opportunity for all" true American realities rather than pious catch-phrases in history books.

By KERMIT EBY

*Contributor to educational journals,
teacher in the senior high school,
Ann Arbor, Michigan*

All of us are interested in Americanism these days! If I understand correctly, the Communists whom Mr. Colmery is so much concerned about have insisted in recent months that they are the real torch-bearers of American liberty.

It is a difficult task, indeed, to know just who the real Americans are. While I was in Flint observing the development of the strike, it was my good fortune to take part in a flag-raising exercise by the "sit-downers" and their friends, and on another occasion, to witness a demonstration by the Citizen's Alliance, proving their 100 per cent Americanism. By the way, there were ex-service men in both groups.

Frankly, I am not certain what Americanism is. I consider myself a good American, and I am violently opposed to war, racial and religious prejudice, and an economic system which tolerates hunger in the midst of potential plenty. According to many very respectable and influential groups, my emphasis on a warless world governed by law, and an economy based on coöperation rather than competition, made me decidedly un-American.

But I am not surprised. I learned long ago that one can propagandize for the status quo with little risk. Advocating change is another matter.

Nevertheless, we must go ahead. The ideal of democracy is evolutionary, not static. It was a long road from Magna Charta to the abdication of Edward VIII. And it will take some time and many heartaches before we have a socialized economic system operating to produce goods for use—not for profit. Several laws will have to

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be changed before a man's right to his job will be as well protected as corporate property is today.

Seventy-one per cent of all American wage-earners are earning less than \$1500, and forty-one per cent less than \$950—and a \$2500 income is the minimum amount needed for a family of five. The Brookings Institute, a conservative group, pointed out that we could give every American wage-earner \$2500 a year if we would run our industrial plant at full capacity; other expert economists consider \$3600 a year possible.

No, it is not enough to educate to protect the existing order. We must anticipate change and educate for constant adjustments.

By CELESTE STRACK

National High School Secretary of the American Student Union.

In the past, the American Legion has unfortunately been associated in the public mind with ill-considered and reactionary attacks upon progressive students and educators; Commander Colmery's article on *Training for Good Citizenship* seems to be an important step forward both in changing the approach of the Legion to education and in altering the popular impression given by that organization of being not only reactionary but even vicious at times.

I am glad to say that I can agree heartily with a number of points made by Commander Colmery. His interest in preventing "false economy" in the school system and in extending our school system, coincides with the aim of all forward-looking Americans.

His blunt statement, "We are opposed to censorship. We are for freedom of speech and learning," is most welcome at a time when reactionary cliques the world over are striving to stifle progress. His further comment decrying the use of "volunteer" violence in breaking up meetings is particu-

larly timely when we consider the attacks of vigilante gangs upon labor and liberal organizations—attacks in which members of the American Legion have played a well-publicized part.

The question now is: How will Commander Colmery's statement be interpreted in terms of concrete action by the American Legion? I think we are justified in expecting a change of attitude on many practical questions. For instance, Commander Colmery states that he is opposed to "indoctrination" by teachers, but believes in freedom of speech. Does this mean that he accepts the right of teachers to present their opinion after the facts have been made clear, of course stating plainly that it is their opinion?

Moreover, a growing number of teachers and students feel strongly that the extension of education and preservation of democratic liberties can be safeguarded only through independent organization of teachers and students themselves, in such groups as the American Federation of Teachers or the American Student Union. Does Commander Colmery feel that these groups have a function in our present school system and should be granted genuine freedom of action? Does he feel that students should have the right not only to make judgments, but to act in accordance with their convictions on such matters as peace, economic security, and freedom? Does this statement mean that we can expect the Legion not only to abandon its efforts to secure so-called "Loyalty oaths" of the most un-American character, but also to support instead legislation aimed at guaranteeing civil liberties?

Only such concrete forms of freedom will serve as safeguards for our entire educational system and its future progress. The test of Commander Colmery's opinions will be the action of the Legion in the future; personally, I feel sure that the vast bulk of its membership will continue to move the Legion away from its unfortunate past.

The Junior R.O.T.C. knocks at the HIGH-SCHOOL DOOR

By EDWIN C. JOHNSON

FOR MORE than half a century the forces of militarism have been securely entrenched in our tax-supported colleges and universities. The door was first opened for this development in 1862 when Congress, undoubtedly influenced by the exigencies of the Civil War, included in the Morrill Act an incidental clause specifying that the land-grant college curriculums must include, among other things, courses in "military tactics."

The door was opened still further during the hysteria of the World War period. In 1916, when Congress passed the National Defense Act, the War Department was authorized to set up the more extensive R.O.T.C. courses which are now such a controversial feature of most tax-supported, and many private, colleges and universities.

What is the situation in the secondary schools? Are they free from encroachment by the military? The record hardly justifies an affirmative reply.

The Defense Act of 1916 contained provisions for establishing Junior R.O.T.C. units in public high schools, but during the

World War and early post-war years the War Department made less progress in occupying the high-school field than it enjoyed in the college and university field. The saturation point for military training in higher education was approached as early as 1922 or '23. Since that time the number of Senior R.O.T.C. units, and the number of student cadets enrolled in such units, has remained fairly constant.

Recently the War Department has made energetic efforts to install new Senior units in hitherto untouched institutions. But these efforts have produced rather spotty gains.¹

Today the War Department is devoting special attention to the extension of its position in the secondary-school field. The swelling military expenditures which have characterized the New Deal included in the War Department Appropriation Bill for 1936 a million dollar fund for setting up 113 new R.O.T.C. units, and an additional grant of \$517,850 for 51 more new units was included in the military appropriations voted by Congress for 1937.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author here reports on the successes and failures of the movement to organize Junior R.O.T.C. units in our high schools. Today, he reports, almost thirty Chicago high schools have such units. But in the New York City high schools, "the drive encountered embarrassing difficulties." Mr. Johnson, who is secretary of the Committee on Militarism in Education, describes the situation throughout the country today.*

¹ Full facts on the situation are fairly difficult to obtain, but available information indicates that during the past year or so the War Department has succeeded in completing arrangements for installing Senior R.O.T.C. units at Ohio University (Athens, Ohio) and at seven or eight Catholic colleges and universities, including Xavier, Duquesne, Santa Clara, St. Bonaventure and the University of San Francisco. During the same period, War Department overtures have been rejected or were otherwise unsuccessful at the following institutions: Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, New York; Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin; State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; University of Texas, Austin, Texas; South Dakota State College of Mines, Rapid City, South Dakota; University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma; and the University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

The saturation point having been reached in the college and university field, it was inevitable that the R.O.T.C. expansion program would eventually concentrate its pressure on our secondary schools. The prospect has become an actuality, and for more than a year now the War Department has sought to peddle its wares to high-school officials throughout the country, urging them to make application for Junior R.O.T.C. units and to thus impose military drill courses upon already overcrowded schedules.

The War Department's drive achieved its most impressive gain in Chicago, Illinois, where new Junior R.O.T.C. units have been established in more than a dozen additional high schools in the last two years. Today almost thirty Chicago schools have such units. The War Department assigned 25 additional men to the Chicago schools under the terms of the expansion plan, and the cadet enrollment has doubled to approximately ten thousand.

Opposition to the Chicago expansion was vigorous and outspoken, but it was utterly ignored by high education officials who were more than willing to coöperate with the War Department authorities. Superintendent Bogan, before his recent passing, gave the R.O.T.C. his hearty support, and Mr. McCahey, President of the Board of Education, spoke of the military with pontifical finality: "We have learned (presumably from the War Department) that enrollment in the R.O.T.C. strengthens pupils' loyalty, both to their country and their school. Students so strengthened are not interested in communistic influences. The disciplinary training of the R.O.T.C. is the best thing to build up morale among students."

In New York City the War Department's drive encountered embarrassing difficulties. Both school and War Department officials zealously sought to conduct their negotiations without benefit of public description or discussion. In this they were successful to the extent of getting new R.O.T.C. units actually installed for action in two high

schools before news of the development leaked out to the public.

The leak was the result of a semi-public announcement to students saying that military training was to be offered during school hours throughout the second semester of 1935-1936, and that students would be permitted to work off a portion of their required physical-education credits by taking the military drill which was to be directed by an officer assigned to the schools by the War Department. Immediately a storm of opposition criticism broke loose. The United Committee Against Militarism in New York City Schools, composed of representatives of the Teachers Union, the Teachers Guild and Associates, the National Self Government Committee, the Committee on Militarism in Education, the American League Against War and Fascism, and other peace organizations, and the United Parents Associations of New York City, made a persistent drive to call the school authorities to account.

An incredible amount of "buck passing" was indulged in by the various school officers involved in the matter. But despite this evasion the opposition groups eventually won their drive, for their case was based upon a series of incontrovertible contentions, including the following:

- (1) That the action in setting up the military training units was a violation of Section 713 of the New York State Education Law, which prohibits military training in the public schools during regular school hours;
- (2) That the granting of academic credit for military training, whether given during or after regular school hours, was a violation of the spirit if not the letter of the State Education Law; (3) That the granting of permission to War Department men to instruct the military courses was a violation of the State Law having to do with licensing of teachers, and that to allow them to supervise military training after school hours would be a violation of the local by-law specifying that only persons licensed to

teach may be assigned to supervise extra-curricular activities in the public schools; and (4) That the school officers had no authority to negotiate the necessary bonds to cover the value of the military equipment assigned to the schools by the War Department, for that authority had not been specifically granted them by official action of the Board of Education, as the State Law required.

The situation was complicated even more by the legal requirements of the Federal law (the National Defense Act)—particularly those sections having to do with such details as the assignment of War Department men to supervise the R.O.T.C. work and the bonding requirement. After three or four weeks of sharp controversy as to the merit of these contentions, much of it publicized in the New York City papers, the R.O.T.C. units were finally ordered withdrawn from the two schools in question. The withdrawal, according to announcement by military authorities, was necessitated by "a clash between State and Federal laws."

At Johnson City, Tennessee, the school officers gave the War Department their hearty coöperation, and a Junior R.O.T.C. unit was put into operation a year ago last fall. In a public statement Superintendent Bigelow and Principals Sherrod and Hodges were frank enough to give credit to the local American Legion Post for proposing the establishment of the unit. They explained that the Legion appointed a committee to consult with the Board of Education and other school officers on the matter, and that all "had the expert advice of Captain H. N. Merrill, an officer of the U. S. Army who is now living in our city, who is thoroughly conversant with the program of the Junior R.O.T.C. in various high schools in the United States."

Captain Merrill, they said, appeared before the high-school assembly to explain the work of the proposed R.O.T.C. unit. In their statement on "the high-lights of the plan," which was distributed to parents, the

three school officers cited a series of interesting items: The Federal Government, they said, establishes "in large high schools" Junior R.O.T.C. units "in which physical instruction is given to all boys who enroll in the course. . . . There is no charge to the school for the course, nor to any boy enrolled." . . . An army officer is detailed to the school as instructor of the course, and the Federal Government "pays his salary, and that of his assistant, a Sergeant." . . . The former "is usually a graduate of West Point, and is chosen for his ability to instruct and deal with high-school boys." . . . "Each boy enrolling receives his outer clothing without charge, i.e., shirt blouse, cap, trousers." . . . "No boy who enrolls agrees in any way (*sic*) to military obligations that are not required of any citizen. This means that those who agree to enroll have no obligations to become soldiers that any other citizen does not have" (*sic*). . . . "Experience in other schools, some several hundred in number (*sic*), has shown that the course is very popular with boys, and very few who enroll drop out of school because they do not like the instruction" (*sic*).

Inaccurate as it was on certain matters of fact, awkwardly constructed as it was grammatically, false and misleading as it was in its emphasis, the foregoing statement by the superintendent and the principals, one has to concede, was well calculated to "sell" the Junior R.O.T.C. to the pupils and parents of Johnson City.

The disturbing thing is that the school officers were gullible enough to swallow the pro-military propaganda as completely as they did—hook, line, and sinker, so to speak. Such opposition as manifested itself was ignored or quieted by the assurance that the unit was to be established for a trial period of one year only. This apparent concession was rather nullified by a later report that the War Department's man had been detailed to Johnson City for four years.

After the work of the new unit had got under way one correspondent reported that

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student attendance was irregular because "the hours allowed for the course are against its popularity," and also that much objection is being made to the training because "at least one of the officers uses such profane language."

The Board of Education at Carbondale, Illinois, was quite as enthusiastic for the proposal to set up a Junior R.O.T.C. unit as the officials at Johnson City, as they demonstrated by a 4 to 1 vote supporting the idea. But the announcement of their action last July caused an aroused public opinion finally to overrule their decision.

The local veterans supported the Board, as did the Lions Club and the local Business Men's Association. But the opposition, which was composed of churchmen, members of the local Women's Club, League of Women Voters, and Association of University Women, and of faculty members of the nearby Southern Illinois State Teachers College, was successful in persuading the Board of Education to decide to submit the question to a community referendum. The vote was preceded by intense activity on the part of the opposing groups, with each side resorting to large advertisements in the local newspaper in order to tell its story. The people rejected the proposal by a vote of 442 to 347. Among the white people the vote was decidedly against the Board's proposal, while the negro vote favored the military in the ratio of 4 to 1.

One of the most encouraging aspects of the Carbondale experience was the action of President Roscoe Pulliam and faculty members of the Teachers College in throwing their influence behind the opposition. Dr. Pulliam's denunciation of the proposal was a remarkably forthright statement, one that will live long as an eloquent declaration of the educator's case against Army "education."²

In many other communities throughout

²Copies of Dr. Pulliam's statement, and other materials on the military training problem, are available from the Committee on Militarism in Education, 2929 Broadway, New York City.

the country efforts to install Junior R.O.T.C. units have precipitated sharp controversy, much of it conforming to the general pattern indicated by the situations described above. During the past year or so such efforts have been defeated or were unsuccessful in the following places:

Medford High School, Medford, Massachusetts.
Salem High School, Salem, Massachusetts.
Woburn High School, Woburn, Massachusetts.
Fall River High School, Fall River, Massachusetts.
DeWitt Clinton and New Utrecht High Schools,
New York City.
Public High Schools, Dayton, Ohio.
Ashland High School, Ashland, Kentucky.
Public High Schools, Nashville, Tennessee.
Carbondale High School, Carbondale, Illinois.
Urbana High School, Urbana, Illinois.
Green Bay High School, Green Bay, Wisconsin.
Carthage High School, Carthage, Missouri.
Springfield High School, Springfield, Missouri.
Public High Schools, St. Louis, Missouri.
Nampa High School, Nampa, Idaho.
Waco High School, Waco, Texas.
Redwood High School, Redwood City, California.
Santa Maria High School, Santa Maria, California.
Delano High School, Delano, California.
Yakima High School, Yakima, Washington.

A review of the situations outlined here, and of dozens of other similar situations, gives rise to several significant observations.

First, there is the disquieting fact of what appears to be a general desire on the part of the advocates of military training, both those officially representing the War Department and those within local schools, to avoid full and free public discussion of the R.O.T.C. issue. Experience in Chicago and New York City, and in other places, suggests that the pro-military forces almost always seek to accomplish their aims by rather irregular means. Too often their efforts are characterized by a sinister unreadiness to submit their proposals to public review and examination, and this of itself is sufficient to cause thoughtful citizens to look askance at what is thus offered to them.

Second, there is the equally disturbing tendency on the part of the pro-military groups to seek to disassociate the Junior

R.O.T.C. and military training from the larger forces of militarism and nationalism of which it is an integral part. Hand-in-hand with this goes a blanket denial of the military purposes and functions of the R.O.T.C., and a tendency to exaggerate beyond the bounds of reason the educational by-products which some claim result from its training. These faults, one is tempted to conclude, are only gently described by the phrase "intellectual dishonesty."

Another aspect of this is the practice, so artfully employed by the Johnson City officials, of describing the Junior R.O.T.C. and its alleged benefits in terms of what and how the individual, and incidentally the community, may gain from it, apparently without cost or responsibility. This emphasis upon "rake-off" and privilege without attendant cost and responsibility may not be dishonesty in any crude sense, but it hardly qualifies as sound citizenship training in the interests of democracy.

While this article is not primarily argumentative in purpose, I submit a third point which needs to be emphasized.³ It is that the militarizing of our public schools constitutes a certain drift in the direction of fascist regimentation.

It is but a minimum statement of the case to say that the training cultivates a fascist mentality in those who are subjected to it. The broader social aspects of the thing suggest even more ominous possibilities. President Pulliam put it well by saying: "If we place in every high school in the country a military unit which takes the boys of every community at their most impressionable age and makes of them believers in armed force and obedient servants to a highly centralized military authority at Washington, we will be creating a splendid instrument with which some would-be dictator can seize control of the country without the consent of

³ Readers interested in a brief analysis and argument on the educational and other issues involved in the military training problem are referred to my article, "Military Training: A Critical Appraisal," in *Progressive Education*, January, 1935.

the people. We have only to look at Germany and Italy to realize that this is no idle fear."

In conclusion, one pertinent question deserves to be raised. It has to do with the future of the issue. Has the saturation point for military drill in the secondary-school field been reached yet?

There is no good reason for believing that the pro-military groups think so. The War Department will continue its Junior R.O.T.C. drive as long as available funds permit. It knows it can rely on its friends in Congress. One of these is Senator Russell of Georgia, a member of the Senate Subcommittee on Military Appropriations, who believes and has reiterated that "every educational institution in the country that desires R.O.T.C. units should be afforded the opportunity of having one" (*sic*).

Then, too, the War Department can count on support from the many veterans and super-patriotic groups, and from such organizations as the Illinois Bar Association which, through its so-called Americanism committee, recently advocated the extension of the R.O.T.C. "to all schools and colleges"—"believing," as one report put it, "that the wearing of the livery of our Army is conducive to greater love of country and deeper interest in our institutions." These organized forces will exercise no hesitation in calling upon educational authorities to adopt their reactionary proposals.

But there is ground for hope that enlightenment may prevail. The indispensable conditions of this hope, however, are unrelenting vigilance and militant action on the part of all progressives—not excepting teachers. Only as the enlightened elements in local communities have and take opportunity to organize themselves for the concerted expression of their views on this and related issues, and in opposition to the plans and activities of their adversaries, can they assure the effective adoption and defense of school policies and programs in harmony with their convictions.

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EXPERIENCING ANCIENT CULTURES

By
HENRY C. FENN

The Lincoln School's Tenth-Grade Integration

ND YOU from Corinth," the visitor heard at the challenge as she entered a room where was scheduled an integrated course in Ancient Cultures, "what is your reaction to this plea for help from Miletus?"

A student has asked the question. Another student, rising in his place at the council table, replies:

"Corinth sympathizes with the sufferings of the Ionian cities. We are all Hellenes, and kinship of blood is no slight tie. But we must use our heads as well as our hearts. Miletus asks aid against the Great King because neither she nor any other of the Ionian cities has been able to withstand his forces. But after all, is it such a disgrace or hardship to be ruled by a king who has conquered the Phoenicians, Croesus of Lydia, and mighty Egypt?

"Moreover, what hope would we have, even if all the free cities of Hellas should unite to send aid across the island-dotted waters, against so overwhelming a force as the Great King has marshaled? We would only draw his anger against ourselves. Then where would be the commerce of Corinth—or of our neighbor Athens either, for that matter? With us on our rocky isthmus, no trade, no food."

Up jumped another student before the Corinthian had resumed his seat. There was more than an assumed classroom interest in his manner as he flung back at the first speaker:

"If it's your precious trade you're worrying about, you'd better think again. With whom do you trade if not the cities of Ionia? Who takes your pottery in exchange for the woollens that make your clothes if not the cities of Ionia? And do you think you can skulk in your rocky isthmus and avoid the attention of the Great King? First Ionia, then Hellas; it is decreed by the Fates. With our harbors and the ships of the Phoenicians, it will be but a step to Athens, to Corinth, to Thebes, to Sparta. Strike now before it is too late; better fight an enemy far from home than under your own walls. If you will not come to save your brother Hellenes, then come to save your own hearths and shrines."

The visitor rightly gathered that representatives of Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, and even distant Syracuse, were gathered to hear an appeal for help from Asiatic Miletus against the Persian threat.

The extent to which these high-school students—tenth graders—had caught the distinctive flavors of six representative Greek cities of 500 B.C. would have done credit to adults. In their remarks lay evidence of wide reading. The Spartans sensed most clearly the military implications of the desired aid and the dangers of attracting attention of the ambitious Persians. The Corinthians feared the loss of the commerce which furnished their daily bread. The Thebans appeared less concerned with the

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This study of ancient cultures, worldwide in its scope, covers two semesters, ten periods a week. It was presented in four units, and drew from four fields: social studies, English, art, and music. The author is a teacher in the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University.*

problems of Ionia than even the distant Syracusans; for the latter, living under constant menace of Carthage, had much sympathy with Miletus, but dared not send an army and navy so far from home.

Athens naturally showed most emotional interest in her Ionian kin and was further prompted by political and commercial interests all over the Aegean Seat to forestall Persian shadows on Hellenic waters. It was clear that these students not only had a certain set of facts at their disposal, but knew how to use them.

At the end of the first period the class was sent to the library for further data in preparation for the final vote on aid to Miletus, slated for the day following. This gave the visitor a chance to talk to the staff of four teachers who had sat so unobtrusively among the participants in the council meeting that they had been hardly noticed.

The visitor was impressed with the extent to which the students had identified themselves with a situation and a people distant in time and place; but she wondered how long a time it had taken to get sufficient background for such a performance. She learned that the unit on Greek culture was planned to take approximately eight weeks, of which this was the sixth. The first two weeks had been occupied with getting a general common background of Greek history without going into any details. The class then divided itself into groups ranging from two to six members to represent six typical Greek cities, including the Asiatic Miletus and the far western colony of Syracuse.

As a few of the groups soon discovered, their cities were comparatively lacking in historical records, but that situation had been planned for in assigning but two students to such cities as against six to Athens. The period of grubbing for materials being over, the entire class reassembled for the purpose of applying their knowledge in characteristic Greek situations.

The setting into which the visitor had come was the first of a series. A mission from Miletus had come to seek aid, and for his convenience had been (fictitiously) assembled a council of the six major city states to consider his plea. A few days later, after a limited amount of further research on a second problem, another assembly was convened in protest over Athenian mismanagement of the trust funds of the Delian League. Following this at a brief interval came a third gathering of the cities—historical, this time—at Corinth to weigh the acceptance of Macedonian hegemony in an expedition against the ancient enemy, Persia.

Finally came a sort of cultural Olympics in which each participant regaled the gathering with boastings of the cultural attainments of his home town, interspersed with sample fragments of poetry, drama, and prose. A few students brought to this meeting small copies of Greek statues to elucidate their boastings in the field of art.

The functions of this study of Greece are not to be understood without a knowledge of the setting in which it takes place. It is one of five units which compose the year's work in this integrated course on Ancient Cultures. Although ten periods a week are devoted to it, we feel that the field of Ancient Cultures is so large that it can be approached only by judicious sampling with certain definite aims in mind.

In the first place, the course must be genuinely world wide in its scope, not limiting the student's experience to the cultures which played upon the Mediterranean area, but showing him that our occidental cultural background was evolved in the same world in which Hindu, Chinese, and Mayan ways of living developed, even though the contacts between the Eastern and Western areas up to the Christian era were slight and in the case of Central America lacking altogether.

Second, the political aspects of most early cultures should be subordinated to their cul-

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tural contributions to world progress. Dynasties and dates, so far as we moderns are concerned, are chiefly a frame of reference for acquisition of knowledge and expression of ideas and ideals.

Third, since all the separate cultures of the ancient world cannot be studied in the time we have at our disposal, we should select those which contribute most to the understanding of the modern world and its problems.

Fourth, the wide range of common cultural possessions among the groups of the human family and their striking similarities of attitude should be stressed both in the interest of contemporary interracial understanding and to counteract the misimpression given—doubtless unintentionally—by most conventional history texts that cultural differences are far greater than their similarities.

With these aims in view we have built an introductory unit about Primitive Man, showing his place in the evolutionary scale, his early spread over all continents, and the relation of human progress to the acquisition of certain tools and techniques. A second unit deals with Early Culture Centers. In this we adopted the method of study which characterizes the Greek unit, in which, instead of having all pupils study the same materials, the entire group was given certain common general experiences and then divided into committees, whose duty it became to make separate studies and then pool their findings in discussion.

The Early Cultural Centers selected were: the Nile Valley, the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, the Island of Crete, the Indus Valley, the Yellow River Valley, and Central America. The pooling process, commenced after several days of library work, consisted of topical discussion of certain aspects of culture such as man's ways of earning a living, his beliefs about the source and purpose of life, his means of expressing ideas and ideals. It is true that differences are brought out by asking representatives of different cul-

ture centers to compare notes; the fact remains that our students were impressed more by the universality of most of human experience than by the surface differences.

A terminal project in this unit consisted of writing an account of an imaginary trip from one of the culture centers to another. When read in class these bits of writing aroused keen discussion of such matters as historical accuracy, anachronisms, best methods of producing realistic impressions and the reliability of source materials. To prepare adequately for his writing each student had perforce to consult the representative of that other culture center to which he proposed making his imaginary trip.

The third chapter of the year's work is the Greek unit described at the outset. It attempts to give the child a feeling of our indebtedness to classical culture.

This is followed by a much shorter unit dealing with Rome as organizer and transmitter of the classical heritage. The large place which Roman history has usually held in our high-school history courses is materially curtailed, chiefly because from the cultural point of view so much of Rome is a reflection and repetition of Greece. Lack of time therefore suggests that Greece represent the classical tradition and that we pass on to round out the year with one of the cultures of Farther Asia: Indian, Chinese, or Japanese. For experimental purposes we feel that China is most easily handled, but in repeating the course from year to year we should certainly vary the choice.

The last unit brings to the student a contrasting culture, that of a people whom we habitually think of as at our antipodes in every respect. How much we are justified in such an assumption, it is for the student to find out. It need hardly be said that he is usually somewhat disappointed to find out how much he has in common with the Chinese.

Possibly it is not altogether unwholesome to discover—if it is not learned in the process of altercation—that ways of doing things

which we by training have come to regard as odd may yet be quite as reasonable as ways we are used to. It is certainly desirable to learn that western culture is not the sole and exhaustive repository of truth in terms of human experience.

Visitors sometimes raise the question: "How do you justify spending so much time in the past?" It might be replied that we spend it with the past—but not all lost in the past.

Visitors have remarked the way in which tenth graders have brought out analogies between situations in the past and the present. For instance, characteristics of the tyrannies of ancient Greece suggested the dictatorships of modern Europe and led to an illuminating comparison. Granted that analogies are dangerous and comparisons frequently odious; in the last analysis that remains the chief way in which the human mind acquires new knowledge, by comparison of new experience with old impressions. The communism of ancient Sparta may not be identical with that of modern Moscow; nevertheless a knowledge of the qualities of the old communal experiment does help the modern-world citizen to evaluate the significance of the newer experiment. We make every effort to keep the experience of the past tied up to the problems of the present.

An equally common inquiry is, "Just what do you integrate?" Considering the number of interpretations of the term "integration" that are current in educational circles, the question is most pertinent.

There are integrations of subject matter, sometimes differentiated by the term "correlation," in which the main objective is to teach materials from different fields of experience that the resultant picture in the student's mind will be less disjointed. This worthy goal we share with others, but we want to go farther. We should like to provide an experience for the child which will be integrated in the sense that materials are drawn from many fields not for the sake of

teaching certain bodies of subject matter but for the purpose of effecting certain desired learning outcomes which lie beyond subject-matter fields.

When it is desired to produce in the learner an attitude of respect for ways of thinking and doing which are strange to him, the materials of instruction may be drawn from various fields; the exact data used in instruction are immaterial; the desired outcome is an understanding, an appreciation, an attitude. If this sort of integration of experience can be attained, we believe that it will have an integrating effect on the student's personality: it will help him to adjust himself to the situations he must meet in life. Thus a truly integrated course is also integrating in its effect.

To go for a minute into more detail, this particular experiment is drawn from the subject-matter fields of social studies, English, art, and music.

The social studies, being by nature so comprehensive as to afford shelter to any human experience which is in any degree social, offers a framework for the course which cannot well be rejected. The contribution of the English field embraces both acquaintance with literature and experience in the art of writing. The ancient literatures have been sadly neglected by high-school teachers, partly from a feeling that they are not suited to the age level of the students. Nothing is further from the truth. Tenth-grade children revel in comparative mythology, and thrill to the sonorous cadences of the world's epics. They respond to the emotional call of the lyric in any idiom, and enjoy Greek drama sometimes more successfully than the adult, because, like the Greek audiences for which they were written, they accept them without too much critical analysis. And much of the teachings of the early sages of all nations, unlike that of post-renaissance philosophers, was phrased for the untutored mind and lost nothing of brilliance through simple phrasing.

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Our experience has been that, although we teachers started to collect and cull from ancient literatures for the students, it soon became a joint enterprise in which some of the outstanding contributions were made by the students. Their point of view in selection has frequently proved a better criterion than our own.

When it comes to writing, the old stilted, formal composition is gone for good, so far as we are concerned. The one rule of writing that remains is that the writer must have something to say. Given that, no form of expression is taboo except as it fails to function: the only criterion of good form is that it produces the effect desired. Good writing accomplishes its end.

It is so much easier to persuade a young writer to amend his bad habits of expression by showing him that they don't accomplish what he wants them to, than to say that they are not according to the rules of composition. This is not to suggest, however, that spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, sentence structure, must go by the board. On the contrary, they become the answers to the pupil's self-sensed needs and are sought with a motivation seldom found in grammar books.

One of our most successful writing assignments last year will serve to illustrate. In the course of the Chinese unit, Dr. Goodrich of the Chinese Department in Columbia University was persuaded to give a lantern-slide lecture of his pilgrimage up one of China's sacred mountains. The attention of the class centered on a certain pilgrim who, to perform a vow, made his way from his home in the plains to the top of the mountain, by measuring his length along the roadside; so the students were asked to go home and think themselves into the place of that pilgrim and then try to express his emotions.

Some used prose and some verse, some exhibited better workmanship than others, but none failed to catch the spirit of the devout pilgrim and to express in some degree the sort of feeling he must have had.

The products were read aloud to the class and then criticised individually by the English teacher. Those who had not shown some skill in the techniques of written expression were made to feel that they had something worth expressing but were hampered by inability to handle the tool effectively.

The opportunities of an art teacher in the field of Ancient Cultures hardly call for comment. Of course we make use of the museums for every unit: exhibits do help to give the atmosphere of strange lands. It is no new thing to take museum trips, nor is there anything novel in mere copying of ancient masterpieces.

In our Early Culture Centers unit we tried to effect a tie-up between the past and the present in the art learnings. Each culture group planned and executed an art project in which they caught the spirit of the ancient art and interpreted it in a modern problem. For instance, a Cretan group saw the modernness in women's styles of the Grand Age. Accordingly, they planned modern dresses which caught and preserved the Cretan spirit. Another couple attempted adaptations of Chinese costumes to modern American use. One girl, interested in India, used the three-headed deity as a pattern for expressing in a single carved figure three phases of complicated modern life: industry, labor, and government.

A boy struggled with Mayan architecture to find its place in the modern world. His airport, with its pyramidal buildings and massive, square architecture, might not appeal to the practically-minded designer of commercial landing fields, but it represents a disciplinary experience of fighting through a difficult problem. Those who claim that progressive education has forgotten the need for disciplines should watch such a student in action.

Music, too, has its contribution. We found the unit on Primitive Man an appropriate place to study simple types of musical instruments. The class made a number of these and played primitive tunes on

them. A study of the songs of primitive races of today inspired the group to try their hand at making songs, both words and music, of the primitive rhythmic type.

A jamboree at the end of that unit brought into play together, in authentic jungle style, these songs, the flute, the Pan pipes, the drum, the hollow log, and several other simple percussion instruments. Each student made at least one instrument himself.

No discussion of the subject-matter content of the course would be complete without expression of a sense of the inadequacy of the present content. At this stage of experimentation it seems wise to confine ourselves to four fields whose contributions are somewhat cognate and easily blended. When we have discovered a few of the techniques of handling an integrated program and have attained some degree of mastery in those techniques, the problem must be faced: What about other subject-matter fields?

The field of science simply will not be ignored, for man's social progress has been closely tied up with his learnings in the many areas of physical science. Functional mathematics as a tool has an obvious place in the picture, though the size of that place is yet to be determined. There is no logical stopping place for experimentation with integration until every field of human knowledge has been explored for possible contributions to integrated and integrating experiences.

Probably the hardest challenge for an integrator to meet is the query about whether he is covering the minimum essentials. He knows that the visitor has reference to a certain body of material, or group of facts,

which over a considerable period of time has been accepted by the majority of educators as constituting the diet of a liberal education. The experimenter finds the question hard to meet only because he himself has so changed his point of view—since his own education under the "minimum essentials" system—that he now regards no particular assortment of data as being primarily essential to a good education.

His minimum essentials have ceased to be bodies of fact and have become understandings, appreciations, and attitudes. For the pursuit of such ends one teacher may use one assortment of materials, another an entirely different array. Each seeks to teach the child how and where to get his facts when he needs them, how to organize and interpret them, how to apply and use them in his own life situations.

One might define the ideal integrated personality as one which feels at home with all people, can adapt itself to all situations, is adequate to every emergency. The teacher's goal then is to produce such personalities, and that can only be done by training for adaptable independence under changing conditions.

No one set of materials of instruction is adequate to such a task. No compartmental erudition alone meets the needs of expanding modern life. There must be set up a school, not of textbook recitations, but of experiences. These first-step experiments with integration which are being set on foot in various modern schools to the accompaniment of much derision from conventionalists are but pioneering efforts to learn how to select materials and what techniques to use in introducing the pupil to them.

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THOMAS H. BRIGGS:

By

FRANCIS T. SPAULDING

An Appreciation

THERE is reason enough for taking Dr. Briggs' character apart if, by so doing, we can discover the qualities that have made him what we recognize him to be—a leader in educational thinking today, with a record of influence on American schools to which few men can aspire.

My purpose in dissecting him is not, however, merely to explain the position he now holds. Instead, I am much more concerned with the part which must inevitably be his in stimulating and guiding our thinking from now on. It is from this latter standpoint—a hopeful concern with what he will be up to next—that I invite you to look at him as he is.

First of all, he has about him an extraordinary quality of disinterested—but very far from uninterested—detachment. All of us who have known him for a long time have seen that quality again and again in the anecdotes he is so fond of telling. Do you recall his tale of the East Indian loincloths used as portières in a New England cottage, or his story of the four puncture-

proof tires and the puncture-proof spare, or his account of the penniless old lady who planned to spend her birthday money on having her Jane Austens rebound?

If you remember these stories or others, you will remember also the manner in which Dr. Briggs tells them. As often as not, he himself may have taken an active part in the episodes which he describes, yet he recounts them as if, in the telling, he were an unconcerned spectator at an interesting and amusing happening.

This quality of detachment—perhaps, *perspective* is a better name for it—colors Dr. Briggs' professional outlook to such an extent that it has made him one of our most wholesome and incisive critics. No more amusing or more penetrating commentaries on American education have ever appeared than were published in *School and Society* some years ago, in a series of communications from one Quintus H. Flaccus. There is evidence that Quintus H. Flaccus and Thomas H. Briggs occupied the same office.

Read again Flaccus's bewildered account of the high coefficients of correlation which he found between the percentages of high-school pupils studying Latin, state by state, and the homicide rates in those same states. Then read the address which Dr. Briggs delivered before the North Central Association a little later, entitled "Jeremiah Was Right." The letter from Flaccus is satirically amusing, and the speech by Dr. Briggs in his own name is forcefully direct, but both are concerned with the question of what sort of education we are providing and why we provide it, and in both appears that quality of critical detachment which belongs to Dr. Briggs in special measure.

Dr. Briggs has a second quality without

EDITOR'S NOTE: At the dinner on February 20, 1937, given by the Department of Secondary-School Principals for Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, Director of the Study of Secondary Education of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, made an address which struck all who heard it as being of greatest significance.

THE CLEARING HOUSE is glad to publish this address both because of its character and as a gesture of respect and congratulation to Dr. Briggs.

which his sense of perspective might be far less searching than it is—his unusually active and catholic interest in people and in things.

His interest in people expresses itself in a variety of ways. Perhaps it finds most frequent outlet in his habit of keeping in touch with friends at a distance through brief notes on correspondence cards. The notes he writes are sometimes thoroughly businesslike: "On page such-and-such of this or that report you will find the data for which you were looking." At other times he writes for quite unbusinesslike reasons, as in the case of a card I once had from him, on which appeared simply: "Advertisement: Opening for Yale graduate or equivalent. Applicant: Does your ad mean two Princeton men, or a Harvard man part-time?"

But correspondence cards are not his sole means of expressing his interest in people, nor are the persons in whom he is interested restricted to his acquaintances in schools and universities. One need only hear him arguing with his New Hampshire handyman over the best method of repairing a leaky roof, or listen to him discussing the state of the nation with the colored elevator-operator in a hotel in which he happens to be stopping, to realize how strongly he is attracted to all kinds of people.

His interests in things are no less numerous and varied. I imagine that he still talks to his classes about the beauty of New York's annual flower show, and describes to them the treasures that are to be found for the looking in the Metropolitan Museum, and offers to excuse them from a class assignment if they will attend his favorite opera.

I know that each summer he has some new project on foot—to discover whether a female spider will realize that he has substituted a ball of cotton for her sack of eggs, to find out by the use of a sextant and a Geological Survey map just which of two distant peaks he can see past the shoulder of Red Hill, to demonstrate that his own private formula for mixing concrete will

make a more durable set of steps to his boathouse than the mixture which the local experts would have him use.

All these interests, and his interest in interests for their own sake, have led him to think in terms of a type of education that is rich beyond any we now have. The breadth of his own interests has no doubt contributed to his vision of schools which will seek to broaden the horizons of all their pupils, without falsely assuming that only academic interests are respectable, or that only academic pupils are capable of interests.

Seventeen years ago his book on the junior high school gave a clue to one of his hopes for American education: that it might serve "to reveal higher types of activities and to make these both desired and to an extent possible." As time has gone on he has expanded this conception, dealing with it again, in terms of educational method, in his monograph on *Curriculum Problems*, and discussing it even more fully and persuasively in his book called *Secondary Education*.

Standing as one of his unique qualities, his interest in interests has made Dr. Briggs notably imaginative in his planning, and stimulating in his proposals for the future of American secondary schools.

One further quality which is prominent in his make-up is Dr. Briggs' thorough belief in rational thinking as the only sound basis for progress. Perhaps this quality more than any other has given him his widespread reputation for caustic wisdom. I say "caustic" advisedly; for sound thinking on the part of any one person may hurt those who have neglected to think, and there have been numerous occasions in the past when Dr. Briggs has thought and others have not.

At least one such occasion I doubt that I myself shall forget. That occasion was the first meeting of his major course in the year when I was one of his students. At that meeting he proclaimed himself a dentist, chairman of the board of education in a

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small town in which each one of his students was to imagine himself recently elected principal of the high school. We were paying a courtesy call on the chairman, he told us, to make his acquaintance before taking up our work.

In response to our fatuously polite remarks he led each of us in turn into a damning revelation of how little we knew about education. He hurt, as might have been expected of a dentist, but he showed us how to avoid getting hurt in the future, which is seldom characteristic of dentists.

It is this reliance on thinking that has made Dr. Briggs the implacable critic of those who defend conventional programs on emotional grounds, or try to find the answers to educational problems by a mere counting of current practices, or rest their faith on the abstruse tricks that can be done with statistics.

But Dr. Briggs' reliance on thinking goes beyond mere criticism. As the primary basis for his own constructive contributions, it underlies all the books and articles in which he has sought to deal positively with the future of American education. It appears in every line of the recommendations which he presented in his Inglis Lecture, *The Great Investment*. It furnished the chief reason-for-being of the Committee on Orientation in Secondary Education. It informs the whole of the extraordinary article, "If There Were Millions," in which, in advance of the creation of the American Youth Commission, Dr. Briggs outlined the program through which such an organization might render the most constructive service to American youth—a program of which thus far the Commission itself has seemed almost oblivious.

In a profession in which a noise of counting has too often distracted attention from the need for putting our minds to work, Dr. Briggs' insistence that thinking is of paramount importance stands out as a major contribution.

So we have in Dr. Briggs these qualities

—a rare detachment and sense of perspective, an interest in people and things which makes him exceptionally imaginative in his vision of the future, a whole-souled devotion to intelligent thought as the soundest guide to constructive action. If these qualities are indeed the key to his leadership, we may look to him in the immediate future for an even more remarkable guidance than he has given us in the past.

For I do not think I am wrong in believing that the present educational situation contains factors entirely new to our experience, and that these factors need to be dealt with in the light of just such a point of view as Dr. Briggs can best bring to them. To put the situation quite bluntly, I believe that the secondary school, even in the best form in which we now know it, has come to the end of its rope in meeting certain educational problems.

A year ago, two of our graduate students at Harvard were invited to supervise a group of fifty boys under the National Youth Administration, for whom an experimental educational program was being provided by the Boston Y.M.C.A. The boys were all above the age-limit for school attendance; they had all left school. Some few had barely completed the elementary school; one had finished the second year of a liberal-arts college; the others had school histories ranging between these extremes.

The program originally set up for them by the Y.M.C.A. comprised a considerable amount of shop work, laboratory work, and clerical practice, planned according to the supposed interests of the individual boys. To this was added a systematic course in vocational guidance.

As a means of earning his N.Y.A. allowance, each boy was assigned a minimum number of hours of work on the type of special project to which we have grown accustomed as a part of the made-work system—"spotting" illegible street-signs and house-numbers, tabulating columns of figures for some one else's research study, making cen-

suses of various kinds and for various purposes.

Shortly after our students became associated with it, the directors of this undertaking threatened to withdraw their support because of the apparent ineffectiveness of the whole program. They were persuaded to continue the venture for a few months longer in order to allow trial of a new plan. The latter consisted in finding out, through individual interviews, just what each boy most wanted to do, and in then providing for him as close an approximation as possible to the kind of experience that he was interested in.

The students who were supervising this plan believed at first that the boys might not know what they wanted to do, or, if they did, that their desires might be fantastic. They were surprisingly mistaken on both counts. Approached one by one, the boys announced without hesitation that they wanted real jobs. If possible, they wanted jobs that would "get them somewhere"; but in any case the jobs had to be real.

On another point also—and to this point I would ask your particular attention—the boys were unanimous. In a number of cases, it was apparent that they were not prepared for the kinds of jobs they wanted, and it was suggested that they enroll in a school course which would give them the necessary skills. To this they replied with fervor: "Nothing doing! I'm fed up with school stuff, and you can't get me back!"

What was eventually done for these boys was to provide them with jobs in the various city departments of Boston. No boy was placed in a job until he had shown through a two-weeks' try-out in a school shop, drafting room, laboratory, or accounting room that he could be recommended for the kind of work the job entailed.

Once the boys got them, the jobs were "real." Not one was "made" work; each one represented work which the head of the department concerned wanted to have done,

but which did not fall within his regular budget. Furthermore, the jobs were "real" in another sense—any boy who did not make good was subject to summary discharge and return to the school try-out program.

But less significant for the moment than what was done for these boys was, I think, the attitude which they held in common toward school.

It would be easy to explain such an attitude by asserting that the schools to which the boys had gone were not the best that might have been provided, and to conclude that a cure for the future could be found merely in improving the schools. That these schools were imperfect can hardly be doubted. Yet consider again that the boys were of various backgrounds, various levels of ability, various interests, various school histories—united, nevertheless, by their "fed-upness" with school. Is it not conceivable that any school, however admirable its educational program, would have produced a corresponding result?

The environment which any school provides for its pupils must of necessity be largely artificial. In fact, the furnishing of an artificial environment is exactly the purpose for which we have schools.

Every school must see to it that the environment which it sets up "makes sense" for its pupils in terms of life outside the school. But one of the school's primary responsibilities is to strive for all the short-cutting its pupils can stand—that is, for all possible economical artificiality—in the experiences which it provides.

Now it is probable that there comes a time in the growth of every normal boy or girl when he rebels against this kind of artificial environment. To continue in such an environment means to him to continue in a sort of psychological infancy; and he is ready, psychologically, to play his part in what he properly looks on as the "real" world. If this rebellion is indeed an actual phenomenon, we can find analogies for it in other phases of life than education.

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Adolescent boys and girls rebel openly and strenuously against long-continued economic dependency, resorting to crime or to less extreme subterfuge to escape from it. Young men and young women, kept from marriage until after they have reached biological maturity, revolt against the conventions of the traditional moral code.

"I'm fed up with school stuff and you can't get me back!"—may not this be the password of a similar revolt against school as school, spoken by boys who have "grown up" psychologically?

That we have not earlier realized the nature of this revolt represents no sound argument against the view that it does occur. Only within the last seven years have schools had to be seriously concerned with it. Boys and girls are not likely to mature psychologically before they are well along in adolescence, and prior to the depression an effective psychological safety-valve existed for almost every adolescent: He could, if he wanted to, go out and get himself a job. He can no longer escape so easily from the school environment.

Consequently, schools everywhere are being confronted with a discouraging number of boys and girls whom they find it hard to recognize—pupils who can learn but will not, who evade what the school calls responsibility, whom no feasible readjustment in the school's program seems to prod into anything resembling the whole-hearted interest that schools are constantly urged to encourage in their pupils.

Nor is the problem likely to be solved simply by readjustments in school programs. Some boys and girls may no doubt be saved from revolt by improvements in teaching methods and in the curriculum; certainly every practicable improvement ought to be made, and made quickly.

But it would seem to be precisely because the school *is* a school that it has come to the end of its rope with certain of its pupils. And if this is the case no mere internal reform will provide an adequate remedy.

Here stands what I believe to be the unique problem which we now face in secondary education. Whether I have stated it in just the terms in which Dr. Briggs would interpret it, I am not sure. I know, however, that he looks on it as one of the major concerns which lie ahead of us; I cannot forget his insistence that it be squarely considered in the deliberations of the Committee on Orientation.

What the final solution of this problem is to be necessarily remains for the future. Yet Dr. Briggs has himself anticipated what the future may bring. In one of the meetings of the Committee on Orientation he drew an illuminating parallel between the state of education today and its circumstances a hundred years ago, when the academy was revolutionizing American schools.

The pioneer academy was in many respects like no institution that had preceded it. It was the outgrowth of social need for a type of education which the Latin grammar school did not offer, and which no internal reorganization could allow the grammar school to offer. Starting as nearly afresh as any human invention can start, the academy established an educational pattern which has been modified, but never wholly reconstructed, in the succeeding century.

It is possible that the pattern set by the academy is now about to be supplemented, if not actually overthrown, because of urgent social need for an institution which will meet requirements hitherto unrecognized. Such an institution cannot be a school in the sense in which we now think of schools; it must start afresh, meeting new needs in new ways. It is not likely to appear as the product of random research, or as the result of uncoordinated experimentation with this and that.

If the new institution is to come, it will come most quickly and effectively through systematic planning, under the leadership of someone of broad perspective, abundant imagination, and energetic faith in hard and critical thinking.

BACHELORS of CRIME

Guidance Would Have Saved Many

By HOWARD J. LEAHY

ACQUAINT yourself with prisoners! Get to know as many convicts as possible within a year! Listen attentively to their stories! Hear their experiences! Observe their characteristic attitudes and feelings! Cultivate their friendships! Talk with the men about their problems and difficulties! It is only in this way that we can hope to understand criminals."

These words flowed, with staccato-like rapidity, from the lips of a prominent prison administrator¹ seated comfortably in the State House of a large eastern commonwealth. They were aimed at a young man, fresh from college, who had just accepted a job that would take him inside prison walls daily for an intimate study of convicts.

Shortly thereafter, the youth set out for the state prison situated a few miles away. Enroute he passed through numerous city squares, he mingled with countless humans busily engaged in worldly pursuits, and he jostled subway crowds. But, none of these contacts impressed him in the least. His mind was focused intently on the challenging task ahead.

¹ A. Warren Stearns, M.D., Commissioner of Correction in Massachusetts, 1931. Now Dean of Tufts College Medical School.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author has had experience as a prison investigator and psychologist. He tells here what becomes of some of our high-school pupils who had anti-social tendencies. But he points out that a modern, well-organized guidance program can do much to make useful citizens of such pupils. Mr. Leahy teaches in the Hamden High School, Hamden, Connecticut.*

In due time the dim, bleak exterior walls of the Massachusetts State prison, one of the oldest penal institutions in the United States, loomed into view. The natural grayness of the walls was accentuated by the lingering remains of a typical New England fog. A prison guard was stationed at the outer portals of the main entrance. On my arrival he inquired, rather suspiciously, concerning the mission that brought me there. But a hurried telephone call to the Warden's office confirmed my statements, so I was admitted without further delay. In a few moments, the Warden was greeting me by expressing sincere delight in having me there. This introduction began a year of unusually interesting observations.

Every week-day morning the immense, steel, iron-grated door leading to the circular prison guardroom, from which radiated three cell blocks of three tiers each, was opened to me by a pleasant-faced prison officer who held the only keys of admission to the inner world of the condemned. Hardly a day went by without making me deeply aware of the significance of this passageway. Over this threshold thousands of men, young and old, have passed to begin varying years of incarceration; myriads of wives, mothers, fathers, sisters, brothers, and friends have entered to console mentally disturbed and physically anguished souls. Month after month they would return. On departure, tear-stained eyes set in tired, worn faces testified that prisoners are not alone in their sufferings.

Contrary to public opinion, the inmates varied slightly in physical appearance, mental equipment, interests, desires, likes, and dislikes from any similar group and number of citizens in a community of like size on

the outside. They were a fairly representative cross-section of men in an urban community from an occupational standpoint. Most of the professions were represented, and there were numerous skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers.

Youth, especially of the unmarried type, appeared to contribute an unusually large quota of inhabitants. Young men were present in unbelievable numbers. Each one had an individual appeal all his own. Take "Smiley" Jordan, whose life story was as fascinating as that of the main character of a modern fiction tale. Left parentless at an early age, he was reared in the sunny South amidst the hospitable environment of a southern plantation, but later migrated eastward in search of adventure.

The excitement and glamor of the open road leading to a large metropolis magnetically attracted his nature. Soon, he found himself in an eastern city in search for a job with hundreds of others. Lacking the stamina and the insight ordinarily provided through associations and examples by the well-regulated American family, "Smiley" easily became the companion of anti-social friends. For several weeks he succeeded in pillaging and plundering with a mob that managed to escape detection. However, the inevitable day arrived. He was apprehended with an accomplice and sentenced to the state reformatory for two years.

At the reformatory he met a formidable array of anti-social talent. Here, he learned how his crime should have been carried out so as to have avoided arrest and subsequent conviction. Strangely enough, this information came from fellow inmates, somewhat older and more experienced in anti-social conduct—and also from reformatory guards!

Older men, better trained in crime, succeeded in imparting to this youth a thorough knowledge of the best professional techniques employed by the expert criminal. Upon release, he received parole papers, but might well have had the degree of Bachelor of Crime conferred upon him. Inspired with the wanderlust that often strikes criminals

after expiration of their prison terms, "Smiley" caught the earliest freight out of town. He travelled hobo style "on the rods" for hundreds of miles. Finally, he arrived in a Massachusetts city and took up residence in quarters provided by friends of pals that he had met in the reformatory.

Excitement in the form of dances and movies characterized the activities of "Smiley" and his hosts for weeks. Shortly, he was asked to participate in a daring, daylight hold-up. Acceptance was not difficult. To him the scheme offered an opportunity to show his ability among criminal friends. Perhaps it would lead to remarkable fame, he thought. For days, each participant in the proposed crime rehearsed with extreme care his part in the robbery at the gang headquarters before the word was given for its enactment.

Due to an unforeseen mishap, the hold-up ended unsuccessfully. "Smiley" and his partners in crime were convicted and sentenced to 12 to 15 years in the Massachusetts State prison for robbery while armed.

Fortunately, "Smiley" Jordan was among the first young convicts with whom I became acquainted. With minor variations in regard to time and place, the institutional history of "Smiley" Jordan represents, in major facts, the previous training and experiences of countless young criminals now serving sentences in the Massachusetts State prison.

These youths whose ages extended from 18 to 35 years have spent successive terms of varying lengths in industrial schools, houses of correction, reformatories, and prisons all over the United States. Judged by the number and seriousness of acts committed over a relatively short period of time, these youths may be said to have acquired sufficient knowledge in the ways of crime to merit the Degrees of Bachelors of Crime or Masters of Crime. Some have had such extensive and successful criminal careers that they might even be termed Doctors of Crime.

My associations with these men revealed

conclusively that many of our American jails, houses of correction, reformatories, and prisons may well be classed excellent schools and colleges of crime. Others are graduate schools providing excellent training in the field of criminal education. The sad part about the whole thing is that they are supported by public taxes with the express purpose of reforming criminals, but facts and figures point to an increase in youthful participation in crime and rapidly mounting cost of operation in the case of prisons.

Massachusetts' answer to the challenging indictment suggested by observations of this sort is exemplified by the modern Norfolk prison colony, started by Sanford Bates—now Director of Federal prisons, where a definite attempt is made to segregate offenders according to a system that takes account of the individual differences in inheritance, in mental capacity, in previous life-contacts, in environment and in future possibilities of each prisoner.

Dormitories of brick and stone house the prison population. Cell blocks with their accompanying ironbarred cells are not in evidence. Comfortable beds have replaced the traditional prison cots. Modern plumbing facilities have supplanted the "buckets" still in use at the Charlestown, Massachusetts, prison.

In the kitchen, in the library, in the school, in the chapel—as a matter of fact, everywhere—there is striking evidence of a better environment for the confined prisoner. It is hoped that the men will be better able to regain their self-respect; to restore confidence in their own selves; to discover their potentialities; and even to improve their cultural, physical, and intellectual outlooks so that upon release they may become worthwhile, useful citizens of America.

Guidance counselors in our American high schools, as well as classroom teachers, are in a strategic position to observe the

workings of adolescent behaviors. Pupils who display anti-social tendencies can be studied with sympathetic understanding devoid of emotional content and careful analysis will reveal causative factors that tend to generate unsocial and anti-social attitudes.

Had thousands of men now confined in American prisons gone to schools similar to modern ones, where numerous attempts are made and opportunities provided to aid youth in adjusting themselves to the changing conditions of a new social and economic world, the chances are that the per cent of present-day felons would have been appreciably reduced.

Many habitual attitudes of non-conformity and consistent indifference toward responsibilities displayed during youthful years may indicate the origin of reaction patterns that will lead to delinquent conduct in later life. Only the careful guidance of well trained, experienced individuals, capable of dispensing wise counsel, can hope to reduce the number of potential criminals.

In recent years modern secondary schools have recognized the importance of teaching something aside from formal subject-matter. Emphasis has been placed on the instruction of individuals who will soon be walking bundles of good habits. Great care has been exercised in the construction of the curriculum. We hear teachers talking about the education of the "whole child." Factual information alone is no longer considered the primary objective. Activities involving the teaching of a wider range of sensory and motor skills have replaced the traditional narrow subject-areas.

Modern youngsters are really meeting real-life problems in modern classrooms and learning various ways of solving them. Twenty years hence, if our national crime bill has been decreased, it will be due in large measure to the best present-day methods and techniques utilized in teaching the young.

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An Administrator Looks at

The Schools and Democracy

A Reply to Myers' "Will Education Go Democratic?"

By JOHN LUND

Then said they unto him, Say now Shibleth: and he said Sibboleth: for he could not frame to pronounce it right. Then they took him and slew him at the passages of Jordan: and there fell at that time of the Ephramites forty and two thousands.—*Judges, 12:6.*

DOCTOR MYERS asks, "Will Education Go Democratic?" in the January issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE—and our first impulse is to cup our ears the better to know if he frames "to pronounce it right." Do our ears deceive us, or does he really pronounce it "communistic"?

Little wonder that he recognizes the "danger" of his position by thus laying himself "open to the charge of radicalism." It seems that democracy is being threatened again and the way to save it is to threaten it some more. This writer for one, would be much relieved if we could agree to a moratorium in the use of the word "democracy" in our discussions of educational problems and issues; this moratorium to remain in effect long enough for us to discover and agree upon the true meaning of the word and

thus fortify ourselves against its use as a shibboleth.

It was the following passage which first gave us concern: "It has been only since 1930 that any considerable number of our people have begun to realize that the existence of our democracy is threatened." The dating of the emergence of this concern carries with it the implication that democracy was being threatened by what happened prior to 1930 and yet the tense of the verbs suggests strongly that the threats have all developed since 1930. Are we defending the democracy of the Liberty Leaguer or the New Dealer? It's all very confusing, especially to one who has always believed that it is in the very nature of democracy to be continuously threatened and that therein lies the secret of its amazing virility.

We are confused also by the complacency with which Doctor Myers views certain administrative procedures in the light of the "democracy" which he invokes. His justifiable pointing with pride to the certification standards now in effect in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut recalls to mind the zeal and professional competence with which he contributed to these desirable advances in Connecticut as the representative of the (shall we say "autocratic" or "bureaucratic"?) state board of education.

We hasten to agree with Doctor Myers that his operations were quite "democratic" in spirit, and to some extent in form, and that there was coöperation with the profession. We agree also that the leadership that initiated the policy and the authority that

EDITOR'S NOTE: In the January issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE, Doctor Alonzo F. Myers attacked "the present autocratic organization of secondary education" and offered proposals for changing the situation. The author of this reply has been a high-school principal and a superintendent, and is now lecturer on education at the Graduate School, Yale University.

made it effective were "democratic" in source and derivation of power. But again it was not the "democracy" which he would apply in his proposals for a shake-up in school organization.

We are further confused when, after being told that "we cannot expect the public to pay for public education without having a right to decide how much that bill is to be," we learn that "on certain other matters, however, over which local, lay boards now exercise control, there is considerable doubt as to their fitness."

All of this is followed by proposals which leave to the representatives of the people whose children are to be educated, only that single function which they are qualified to exercise, namely, paying what they decide it is worth. What if they decide it isn't worth anything? Didn't we Americans refuse to pay once before at the behest of an "autocrat," or was he a "tyrant"?

Here endeth our tale of confusion. Since we don't know even now whether he said "Shibboleth" or "Sibboleth" there will be no bloodshed, or even name-calling or phrase mongering.

From here on we follow Doctor Myers without confusion of mind and with real admiration for his skill in marshalling facts and drawing up an indictment of procedures and practices within and without the profession which in many cases cry out to high heaven for change and reform. There is no need for elaboration here. His picture of schools as they are and as they should be; his characterization of teacher-administrator relationship patterns; his exposé of practices of lay boards, evidences of crookedness, ineptitudes, lack of fitness; his analysis of trends and his survey of an emerging profession; are all too true, sound and penetrating to elicit much question from those of us who are willing to face facts.

It is only when we come to a consideration of specific proposals in the light of these facts that we rise to voice some questions and objections. Suppose we consider two

of his proposals briefly, each in turn.

Proposal I: To this mandate for a fundamental change in the character of our school procedures, a long and sincere "Amen." Increasing effectiveness of teacher-training procedures is making for real progress in the direction of providing an "expert, professionally-minded teaching staff." Within the ever-changing pattern of teacher-supervisor-administrator relationships, many teachers are now finding and utilizing opportunities for a creative attack on these problems.

Proposal II: Here we have a suggestion for clearing major problems of personnel, hiring and firing, through an elected staff committee with power of recommendation. Here is where we begin with our questions and objections.

First, we must face the very practical question of how this delegation of responsibility can ever be effected without a revolutionary change in the fundamental and traditional concept of the source of control in American education. The thing which makes the American school unique upon the face of the globe is this principle of local control. Our schools represent in a very distinct sense the unfolding ideals of a people. They are purely local, community enterprises and their control is jealously guarded with quick resistance to anything which threatens, or interferes with, local authority.¹

Of course Doctor Myers will be quick to reply here that his proposal calls only for an extension of a responsibility now delegated to the superintendents in some states. We should note here that this is a rule as frequently honored in the breach as in the observance.

When responsibility is so delegated, it is done on the theory that the superintendent is an impartial and professionally competent agent of the board. Human nature being what it is, a staff committee could never be free from the suspicion of partiality and

¹ See Dept. of Superintendence: *Thirteenth Yearbook*, p. 213.

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self-interest. In the last analysis, however, in practice, regardless of statutory delegations of authority, the traditional concept of local control is operative. There is no power more jealously guarded by local boards than the power to hire and fire when they want to use it. This appears to us to be just a plain realistic view of the situation as it is and as it promises to be for a long time. The "democratic" way out appears to be through education of the supporting, lay public and not by the curtailment of their responsibility on the ground of lack of fitness.

Suppose we project our thinking beyond this first practical question. Let us assume that these responsibilities have been or can be delegated to the staff.

Is it not fair to ask if we can properly impose such a responsibility upon this group? If they accept it conscientiously, may it not result in the development of an uncomfortable awareness on the part of all concerned that with it goes the necessity for a more or less conscious and continuous appraisal of the professional competence and personality traits of one's co-workers? Is it not conceivable that there could develop an atmosphere of concern, distrust, suspicion, intrigue, internal politics, internal hierarchies, all of which might affect in one way or another the general tone and morale and the professional effectiveness of some members of any group?

Teachers, generally, resent the intrusion of demands upon their time, energies, and peace of mind which do not bear upon their effectiveness as teachers. In the school which Doctor Myers envisages one of the real problems will be the conservation of teacher time, energy, and vitality of spirit. It would be worthwhile to get the reaction of the mental hygienists to the implications of this proposal. We do not feel that the assumption of an expert professionally-minded staff is a sufficient safeguard. We are still humans for a' that.

We have already suggested that in spirit

the proposal has real merit. The suggestion is therefore offered that *within* the pattern of a teacher-administrator relationship that is definitely emerging in practice, the true values in this proposal may be realized.

Administrators are growing in their appreciation of the true functions of leadership. They are operating more and more as coöperators and coördinators. The kind of administration we are talking about puts a premium upon initiative, independent thinking and the will to experiment on the part of teachers. Such an administration develops a staff organization that functions as a clearing house for study, recommendation, or advice with respect to all major problems of policy, program, procedure, and personnel.

Within such an administration there are enough self-determinations, covenants, and decisions openly arrived at and mutually agreed upon, to satisfy even such a staunch "democrat" as Doctor Myers.

Under the stimulus and inspiration of leadership of the type we have in mind, teachers can and do develop professional responsibility for standards and codes of professional conduct. Full opportunity is provided for coöperative, as well as self, appraisal and supervision. The staff would not be required, however, to carry responsibilities, the *weight* of which might tend to defeat the main purpose.

Proposal III: We agree whole-heartedly with the general proposition that there should be a definite limitation placed upon the term of service for administration and supervision and for the reasons given by Doctor Myers. And here we part company again. We would insist that administration is a field of specialization as legitimate as that of teaching; that *training*, of which successful teaching experience would be an important part, is essential, despite Doctor Myers' citation of successful university presidents who "never even had a course in education."

We share with him his doubts as to the

value of much that is called specific training. We are very sure that some form of direct experience and field contact under competent guidance would be far superior to much of the vicarious "case-work" offered in courses.

The proposal before us minimizes the importance of the executive and administrative functions, as well as their complexity. It might, in effect, subject the organization to the hazards of a series of short-term "experiments" in the discharge of these functions. It would certainly be altogether wasteful of a rather rare combination of talents, integrated by experience into what we will call, for lack of a better phrase, executive ability, the supply of which has never been equal to the demand. To cope adequately with the wide range of problems incident to the discharge of administrative and executive functions calls for a career type of service, broad enough in its scope and exacting enough in its requirements to challenge the most expert competence attainable.

The notion that one can step from the classroom to the administrator's desk and then back again after five or six years of service is almost naïve in its utter disregard of the facts referred to. Here again we wonder about the psychological implications. Just what would happen to a man or woman returned to a classroom after the stimulation of, and preoccupation with, modern administrative and supervisory problems?

Assuming that the quality of service, "democratic" and otherwise, revealed talent and interest of high order, just how would the "satisfactions," which psychology tells us are so very important, manifest themselves? Just how long, we wonder, would it take to clutter up our classrooms with a crew of almost psychopathic ex-administrators or supervisors or principals with thwarted personalities? Can it be that the good Doctor is "spoofing" us? We refuse to be drawn out further in this connection.

We have agreed that there should be a

limitation placed upon the various terms of service, for the very good reasons presented by Doctor Myers. The term should be short enough to give the school or the system an "out," and long enough to give the incumbent a chance for real service. The term should be renewable at least once.

The profession should determine standards of qualification and certification and perhaps a scheme of classification on the basis of objective appraisal of quality of service. There should be a clearing house designated by the profession, possibly state departments of education, to provide eligibility lists from which school boards would be required to make selections. Credentials could be filed and eligibility listing applied for, in more than one state.

All of this is suggested to put appointments on a professional basis under rules drafted by the profession. This procedure would take the place of present day, laissez-faire, free lance "by gosh and by golly" methods. Salary scales for various classes of communities could be worked out by states.

Proposal IV: As in the case of the first proposal we offer only praise and complete agreement. With the development of co-operative techniques, applied by members of an "expert, professionally-minded staff"—representative of all the skills and interests required to provide pupils with a rich environment of influence and activity—supervision as we know it now, general and special, will have had its day. Leadership in instruction will emerge as the staff works together in a creative enterprise in an atmosphere created and fostered by intelligent and "democratic" administration.

Yes, American education can and will go "democratic" and still maintain the tradition of its distinctly popular and local origin, unplanned and not dominated by any one individual or group, lay or professional, remaining inevitably responsive to the evolving ideals and aspirations of thousands of far-flung local communities.

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Longfellow Junior High's Monthly Rotating

By

DORIS E. COX

ART EXHIBITS

IT WAS an almost chance remark that I launched the Longfellow Junior High School of Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, into a new art consciousness.

The nearby city of Milwaukee is fairly well equipped for bringing contemporary art before the public—but that was in Milwaukee. There intervened a half-hour's ride on the street car, single-hour class periods, and an art teacher functioning in two schools. Excursions or field trips are even encouraged for student groups—but how frequently, with the difficulties listed, could this be undertaken?

Then came the nucleus of a plan when an instructor during a summer art class said, "Always have good things to show your pupils." This man happened to be a painter of state-wide and even greater renown. After class he was approached on the subject of lending some of his paintings to a school for a short time. It was something of a shock to have him condition his "yes" with—"if the school pays me five dollars." Stunned by this lack of consistency on the artist's part, the teacher-student pointed out to any one who would listen, the difficulties of providing good illustrative material for classes.

Finally during a discussion of the problem with a group of people, a business man who paints for a hobby offered the use of

his pictures without charge—then a professional artist—then this one—then that. The monthly art exhibits at the school were begun.

The principal, Mr. E. E. Born, readily saw the advisability of a project of this nature. Since every boy and girl is a potential art consumer, how much better to direct these young people toward a taste beyond the pretty calendar type of thing, the characterful rather than the merely sentimental, to help them to appreciate the contemporary movements. Help them to know good art and arouse their interest in expressing their reactions, to develop and broaden their understanding of the right of living men and women to express themselves, and to see the results of this expression first hand—not just lantern slides or picture books—and finally, to inspire the talented child who may become a producer of art as well as a consumer.

To this end, arrangements were made whereby the school truck called for and returned pictures painted by artists in the vicinity.

Ordinarily the exhibits were made up of twelve drawings or paintings. In order to keep down expenses, the new exhibit was called for the same day the old exhibit was returned to the artist. This delivery service, though costing the school \$1.50 of its budget money for each round trip, enabled us to have exhibits otherwise not available.

The janitor was pressed into service to help hang the first exhibit. Later a group of pupils from a homeroom formed themselves into an art committee that aided the art teacher in hanging the pictures. For two years these youngsters met once a month

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This article should bring to the attention of high-school faculties a worthwhile opportunity that many schools are overlooking. The author is art teacher in the Longfellow Junior High School, Wauwatosa, Wisconsin.*

after school, discussed the position of one picture in relation to another, the lighting, the size, and whose turn it was to put up the hook.

The exhibits for those first two years were hung in the large study hall, and the student bodies from other schools as well as parents and friends were encouraged to come to see the exhibits any time during the school day.

This year, whenever possible, the exhibit is being divided among individual home-rooms, then rotated weekly. The English and social-science rooms are given first choice, since all pupils have classes there. This single change in hanging the exhibits has increased student and teacher interest tenfold. Discussions voluntarily carried on in classes other than art classes and home-room periods are not always favorable to the picture exhibited. It has been found that a first dislike leads to discussion that brings about study and interest never aroused by the obviously pleasing.

A WPA worker now spends part of one day a week changing the exhibits. This unfortunately dismisses the art committee, but this change has been justified by the previously mentioned results.

Although nearly all the paintings and drawings are for sale, up to now no works have been purchased. During a textile exhibit, some pieces were sold. The commission on the sales paid the postage on the package back to New York city. The benefits to the artist must therefore be in his satisfaction in being able to broaden the cultural aspect of these young citizens, and the publicity given to him personally. Both the junior and senior school papers carry articles of some length on the exhibits—as does the local city newspaper. The Milwaukee papers have always given space of varying quantity to the exhibits and have upon occasion run pictures, both in the rotogravure and regular sections.

At the time of the first exhibit, a letter was sent to all the parents acquainting them with the project. A detailed account of the artist, his life, education, experiences, and success is read before each homeroom at the opening of every exhibit. For some time letters were sent monthly to the presidents of various local clubs.

During the second year of exhibits, the contributing artist or some other person interested in the work was present at an open meeting to talk about the work exhibited, or related subjects. The art group of the Womens' Club usually was represented by from ten to forty people. The rest of the audience of around one hundred were students from the high-school art classes.

Looking back over these months of exhibits, it is possible to see some definite results. The most important is that the whole school is art conscious. Many and long are some of the arguments when the exhibits are of the more modern trend. These arguments are valuable. More readily is the modern movement accepted in our clothing, our cars and our music—yes, and even in literature and in the dance. Interest stimulated by verbal reaction to the modern in architecture, painting, and sculpture is a step toward understanding in these fields even though at first it seems to be only condemnation.

Frequently a child volunteers information gathered from newspapers about exhibits and artists. Familiar names of artists are exciting when they appear in the news column. To the talented pupil has been brought an impetus that could have come about in no other way. It's fun to see what the other fellow did with dry brush, black and white or any other medium. It inspires the pupils to go beyond their own previous efforts, and the results are often good. It will be with regret if for any reason these monthly "shows" are ever terminated.

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18 Criteria for Choosing NEW TEXTBOOKS

By

LELAND B. JACOBS

FREQUENTLY the choice of new textbooks or supplementary materials rests with department heads or classroom teachers. And not infrequently the person whose duty it is to recommend a new textbook, workbook, or supplementary reader finds confronting him a task which is, to say the least, puzzling. In this day of quantity production, when the nation's printing presses furnish so imposing an array of educational books, pamphlets, and periodicals, the possibilities from which one may make his selection are indeed extensive.

The modern book men who call at the school's door also contribute to this dilemma. They have become clever supersalesmen who talk as interestingly—and almost as convincingly—as those who demonstrate the superior qualities of the various new models at the local "Auto Show."

This supersalesmanship in person and in print makes the problem of book selection for one's local school needs confusing and difficult. Teachers know that when their final decision has been made they must abide by their selection—work and live with it—for an indefinite period of years. Because of this, the person who is selecting teaching

materials should proceed in as objectively level-headed a manner as he can devise. He should ask himself what constitute the bases upon which his decision should rest. He should devise such a plan as can make adequately objective the various books or materials under consideration. In so doing, the teacher can at least minimize the personality of the most recent salesman or the attractive advertisement received in yesterday's mail.

As an aid in meeting problems in book recommendations, the establishment of a few simple criteria which seem to treat of pertinent and salient aspects of selection and which tend toward greater objectivity in choice are a good guide for the perplexed—and busy—teacher. Such items as authorship, curriculum needs, adaptation to children's use, adaptation to teachers' use, and the physical make-up of the book can be considered. They furnish bases that should lead to satisfactory book recommendations.

AUTHORSHIP

While there are many facts concerning the authorship which one might wish to know at such a time, chiefly there are two significant questions which need asking.

1. What training and experience has the author had that qualify him to write this particular book?
2. Does this author's point of view best serve the present needs?

CURRICULUM NEEDS

Conformity with both the trends of progressive educational theory and the philosophy of the local school system is an important consideration in choosing new teaching

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author acknowledges the wealth of textbooks available, and the persuasiveness of the publishers' salesmen and literature. He offers to teachers who face the dilemma of selection a check list of eighteen points by which books may be judged. Mr. Jacobs is supervisor of English, Lincoln Consolidated Training School, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.*

materials. To take cognizance of the best present curricular practice is essential. A simple check on such items as the following will be keys to this phase of the problem.

1. What purposes or objectives are recognized in this book?
2. Is the relationship between avowed objectives and the choice and arrangement of subject matter consistently and definitely established and maintained?
3. Is the material organized in keeping with present progressive concepts of learning?
4. Does the material included give adequate consideration to fundamental social aspects of the educative process?

ADAPTATION TO CHILDREN'S USE

Since the chief purpose of text materials is to aid children in learning, the consideration of the adaptation of the material to children's use is of major concern and should be scrutinized with care. Of major significance are such questions as:

1. Is the material so written that it meets the needs and interests of children in an engaging and appealing manner?
2. Is the material well adapted to provide for individual differences among children and classes?
3. Does the arrangement of the various units promote consistent and integrated thought development, study habits, and growth in power to solve problems among children?

ADAPTATION TO TEACHERS' USE

This is another important aspect of textbook selection. At best, the load of the classroom teacher is heavy. A text that conserves teacher planning, that presents abundance of materials, that provides simple but effec-

tive tools for learning, is indeed to be welcomed by the classroom teacher. The teacher rightfully should ask:

1. Is the material arranged in convenient units for teaching?
2. Is the subject matter presented in a sequence that is psychologically sound?
3. Do all the suggested related activities—study helps, suggested readings, etc.—possess a high degree of utility?
4. Can this material be efficiently adapted to individual and community interests and needs?

FORMAT

Often a new book is joyfully heralded by pupils because of its format. To ignore this in making a selection is short-sighted. In addition to pupil-appeal one needs also to consider the hygienic qualities of the book. One, therefore, well may ask:

1. Is the general appearance of the book artistic, and appealing to children?
2. Is the book a convenient size?
3. Is the durability of the book insured by high quality materials and workmanship?
4. Are the illustrative materials in the book attractive, artistic, authentic, and in sensible proportion with the other content of the book?
5. Are the hygienic standards—finish of paper, size of print, margins, and page arrangement—consistently high?

Of course no such plan used only superficially will ever take the place of intelligent understanding and criticism of every book under consideration. If, on the other hand, some simply-stated check list is coupled with intelligent scrutiny and is used as a guide to selection, certainly the classroom teacher or department head who is called to this task should make more practicable selections of textbooks or supplementary materials.

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READING as a

By
VICTOR H. KELLEY

Problem for the High School

EDUCATIONAL literature abounds with references to the recent astounding increase in the enrollment in secondary schools. The National Survey of Secondary Education¹ suggests, "This growth is unquestionably one of the most significant facts about American secondary education, not only from the standpoint of sheer increase in numbers, but because of the effects of this increase on our educational problems."

One of the most distressing among these problems is that of the inadequate reading habits, skills, and abilities possessed by an increasing number of high-school students.

The non-academic student who does not care to read, and who reads ineffectively, is coming into the high school in increasing numbers. At the same time, one of the most important of the modern advances in teaching methods is the tendency to force both elementary and high-school students to read widely in many fields. A few years ago it was enough for the high-school student to read and master the contents of a single textbook in a class. Now, instead of con-

fining the students' reading to the single text relating to a limited number of topics, the progressive school provides for and demands a wide range of reading activity.

Furthermore, the solution of most classroom problems in the modern school requires the skillful use of books as sources of information. In this sense, reading comes to mean something more than merely rapid comprehension of the printed symbol and the memory and organization of material read. It becomes also an ability to use books and libraries as efficient sources of information. The oral type of reading is somewhat overshadowed in importance by the more practical work-study type of reading ability.

Horn and McBroom² present an excellent list of the typical situations in which silent reading is done. The following is a quotation of the most significant portion of this analysis, showing the skills, knowledges, attitudes and abilities involved in typical silent-reading situations.

1. Skill in recognizing new words.
2. Ability to locate material quickly.
 - a. Knowledge of and ability to use an index.
 - b. Ability to use a table of contents.
 - c. Ability to use the dictionary.
 - d. Ability to use library card files.
 - e. Ability to use reference material.
 - f. Ability to use keys, tables, graphs, etc.
 - g. Ability to skim.
3. Ability to comprehend quickly what is read.
 - a. Rhythmic and rapid eye movements.
 - b. Absence of lip reading.
 - c. Knowledge of meaning.
4. Ability to select and evaluate material needed.
5. Ability to organize what is read.
 - a. To summarize.
 - b. To discover related material.

¹National Survey of Secondary Education, *The Secondary-School Population*, Bulletin No. 17, Monograph No. 4, 1932, U. S. Dept. of Int., Off. of Educ., p. 1.



EDITOR'S NOTE: *The modern type of course, which calls for extensive reading in a variety of supplementary books and magazines, is throwing into sharp relief the reading difficulties and allied ailments of a large proportion of pupils. In this article Doctor Kelley, of the Department of Research and Guidance of Phoenix Union High Schools and Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, discusses the problem and suggests steps to be taken.*

²Horn, Ernest, and McBroom, Maude, *A Survey of a Course of Study in Reading*, Extension Bulletin No. 93, College of Education Series No. 3, Univ. of Iowa, 1924.

- c. To assign topics to proper order or place.
- d. To outline.
- 6. Remembrance of material read.
- 7. Knowledge of sources.
- 8. Attitude of attacking reading with vigor.
- 9. Attitude of proper care of books.

This tendency to treat reading as a most important tool in learning has resulted in establishing a very close relation between reading and practically every school activity. As a means of gaining information and pleasure, it is essential in every content subject such as history, civics, science, and literature. In fact, there is reason to believe that rapid progress in these subjects depends in a large degree upon the ability of students to read rapidly and intelligently.

In a study of two hundred ninth-grade pupils in the Phoenix Union High School who failed in one or more subjects the first term, it was found that seventy-nine per cent had a reading comprehension score below ninth-grade ability as measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test. The average reading comprehension of these pupils was slightly below eighth grade. The average reading rate of these pupils as measured by the same test was equivalent to that of one a fifth of the way through the seventh grade.

At the same time, results of intelligence tests indicated that the group was only slightly below average in mental ability. At least one factor in these pupils' inability to succeed in high school may be assigned to poor reading ability.

Study after study has shown a positive relationship between reading ability and success in most other school subjects. A considerable portion of the pupils who are retarded in other school activities are labelled as slow learners because of unanalyzed reading deficiencies. Faulty reading habits of the secondary-school pupil are not easily detected when there is so little occasion for oral reading and when teachers naively assume that the pupil who has reached the high school is capable of reading.

It follows, then, that good teaching in the

high school must provide for the improvement and refinement of the reading habits and skills that are required in all school and life activities. Many of the skills and abilities learned during the elementary-school period need extension at this time.

In addition, there are specific reading skills which should be learned at the secondary-school level. Pupils in the secondary school should develop considerable ability to study their own reading habits and abilities, to recognize and to correct deficiencies, and to adjust their reading to different types of specialized reading materials.

The modern secondary school must assume certain responsibilities for seeing that pupils reach a maximum of proficiency in basal reading habits. In the first place, opportunity must be provided for an enriched reading experience upon the part of all pupils who are capable of doing effective reading. A wide variety of reading materials must be provided in order to satisfy the wide variation of reading ability which may be found in each class. No longer will the single textbook suffice for a subject.

When a wide range of material is available, pupils may be led to select references which they are capable of reading. The problem of providing for students in the upper ranges of ability is not difficult, since the superior pupils may use standard material written for adults. There is, however, very little worthwhile material which can be read by the students of poorer reading ability.

In the second place, those pupils who are deficient in a basic technique of reading should be discovered early in their high-school experience. The administration of an effective reading test to determine the ability of the pupils to read silently and to use books as a source of information should be undertaken soon after the pupils' entrance into high school. Usually a surprising range of abilities in the fields covered by the test will be found.

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Testing should be done in time to be taken into account in the matter of length of assignments, as well as in the amount and character of work to be expected from the students. The school then should make provision for giving instruction to those pupils who are capable of development beyond the level revealed by the test.

This remedial work will need to be done both by a specialist in the teaching of reading and by the teachers of content subjects. There are quite a number of remedial reading devices which have been developed and are available through various publishing companies.³ Some of this material is quite effective in producing an improvement in reading. However, commercial material will not always be available, and teachers will need to be ingenious in developing materials which will fit the needs of their pupils.

Such exercises will need to provide training for improving the pupils' comprehension of the essential idea of a paragraph as well as the supporting details, for increasing the pupils' rate of recognition, and for the development of other study skills essential to success in high-school subjects.

Research shows that there is no general silent-reading ability, but that one who reads one kind of material well may read another kind poorly and that the ability to read well depends upon the nature of the passage read. Inasmuch as the studies of specific reading requirements for history, mathematics, science, and literature show the need for a variety of skills and abilities, too diverse to be managed in the general course in reading, it will be necessary for the entire high-school faculty to be aware of the problem and to work toward its solution.

Instructors in each subject must be ca-

³ Examples are: Salisbury, *Better Reading Habits*, Brueckner and Lewis, *Exercises in Reading*, and McCall-Cook-Norwell, *Workbook*.

pable of guiding pupils in the formation of proper reading techniques and skills peculiar to that subject. The problem of a technique for locating, organizing and evaluating material, taking notes, making outlines, and summarizing will need to be stressed by the teacher of each different high-school subject. The school librarian also becomes a very important person in the development of a reading program. Not only will she assist in the selection of materials for the pupils but she will observe their reading habits and abilities in order to report deficiencies to their teachers.

In the third place, the school will need to assume responsibility for the so called "non-reader" who has been passed along without having progressed beyond the basic rudiments of reading. This is the task of the expert in the psychology of reading.

Although most remedial work can and should be done in the classroom, the larger high school should have available a place where extended analyses can be made, and where individual corrective exercises can be administered for extreme cases. The "non-reader" who fails to respond to the treatment of the usual type will not be a problem in most high schools, as far as numbers are concerned. But the seriousness of the effect upon the one individual concerned is so great that the high school must assume responsibility for correcting deficiencies.

The small school may need to establish a connection with a larger center where elaborate equipment and expert diagnosis can be utilized for discovering and correcting the difficulties.

Since renewed attention is now being directed toward the reading program of the primary and intermediate grades, it is to be hoped that eventually the problem will not be so acute as it now is. At the present time, however, it looks as if the problem would be like the "poor"—with us always.

FUNCTIONAL

Mechanical Drawing

By

NORMAN E. WALKER

THAT FUNCTIONAL mechanical drawing happens to be going on in our school surprises me as much as it does any one else. I came to this school with old-style training. Everything that had been taught was isolated drill material.

As far as I can see, I should still be teaching it, if it were not for my principal. He came into my class one day and asked a pupil who was drawing at one of the boards,

"Do you know what you are doing?"

"Yes, I know all about it."

"What are you drawing?"

"I'm drawing a top view."

"Where's the bottom?"

"It's there, because we have got the top, but you just don't see it."

The principal questioned him further, "That's a very peculiar-looking thing to me. What is it? Do you know what it is?"

"Yes, I do. It's a block—a block with a hole in it."

When the principal left, I felt very sheepish, indeed.

One of the things we believe in our school is that teaching must be based on the interest of the pupil. We no longer believe that pupils should begin with horizontal lines and proceed to vertical lines, and so on. We believe in functional teaching and nothing



EDITORIAL NOTE: *Here is a very human picture of a functional classroom program. The author is a teacher in the Alexander Hamilton Junior High School, Seattle, Washington. His pupils are reported to have distinguished themselves for their work in mechanical drawing.*

but functional teaching—and so we have architectural drawing in our mechanical drawing classes.

My principal once asked me, "What's architectural drawing, anyhow?"

It was like saying, "Here's a calling card. Write down all you know."

I turned a few thoughts over in my mind. "Perhaps it has something to do with the proper use of space, the proper use of proportion; perhaps it has to do with some of the architectural elements—posts, doorways, and so forth."

The principal then asked, "Do you always have to come back to that old-fashioned idea of drill on posts and drill on windows?" He left me with my thoughts.

My pupils also have helped me to outgrow my earlier formal notions. One of them changed my plans by suggesting how his work might be made functional. "You know, Mr. Walker, this is a five-room modern house we're supposed to draw. Couldn't I make it more? You know, my mother has moved into a five-room modern house and we have to convert the dining room into a bedroom for me."

Such suggestions led us away from drawing houses in front elevation, back elevation, and so forth. The children had little interest in such formalities. The first day I say to the children, "Here's some paper; take it and draw anything you wish to draw." I do this because I am as interested in seeing what they already know as they are in putting it down. The second day we devote our teaching period to motivation. We take twenty minutes—sometimes this is benevolently extended to twenty-one—try-

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ing to arouse interest in three things:

First, we encourage the pupils to express their thoughts graphically. Second, after someone has expressed his thoughts, we encourage interpretation and appreciation of them. Third, should there be outstanding talent in the class, we try to ferret it out and develop it to the utmost.

We are surprised, after this motivation has taken place, at the number of children who want to go to the library. We then move the class into the library and spend the period looking through architectural books and magazines. So far no one has said anything about a five-room modern house.

The children want to draw something. I tell them that is a good idea. About the second or third day I hear, "Teacher, I'm stuck." Then my work begins. At that point we have applied drill. The need is there; they can't go ahead without drill. If the pupils are drawing a circular window, my procedure is like this: If I have a copy of the circle I let them trace it; if I haven't a copy, I let them find one and trace it. I go to the board and make a circle and they trace it in the air. They are then asked to make a circle on paper and see how it looks. If it is still rather egg-shaped, I ask, "How about putting in lines measuring out a circle, and seeing what a circle looks like?"

Then I ask them to trace a quadrant. I trace one on the board, and they repeat the process until they are able to make some kind of circle. Then they go ahead until there is more trouble. My earlier idea was that the pupils should start with lines and go ahead to more complicated processes. Motivated, functional drill is the exact opposite of that procedure.

We believe that schooling is living and that if we are to teach successfully we have to teach life interest. We do not believe in isolated drill or in teaching for deferred interest. As a result we have meaningful and excellent creative activity.

Examples will illustrate these points. In presenting one problem, I said, "Here we

have a mass of lines. Let's link them together and see what we get out of them." A pupil's brother had been in Alaska and had told him about a mine. As far as I know he had no other source of information about the mine. This pupil produced a drawing which has received the praise of hardened "sourdoughs" from Alaska.

One pupil drew the interior of the "bowels" of a ship. This picture showed firemen stoking the furnaces. With extremely limited experience in such things, he produced a picture which won a blue ribbon for excellence. The concept of a fireroom was developed by mechanical drawing to such a degree that the pupil was enabled to live in it. He came repeatedly with all manner of references. The *Rudder* and *Popular Mechanics* magazines, as well as texts and boat books, stimulated his enthusiasm.

Our conversations out of school hours took the form of lessons, until at length his momentum drove him to create. This pupil was living each day fully, and mechanical drawing was a vital part of his living. He had to read mechanical drawings as a part of his living.

The value of reading mechanical drawings must not be minimized. Interest is aroused by showing what has been done, while the pupil makes his desires evident to even a casual observer. The language of industry stands by contrast with the printed sheet, a unique and appealing way of giving directions. One teacher in our schools gives all the directions in his sheet-metal classes by means of a series of mechanical drawings. The reading of drawings and the creating of drawings are mutually helpful, although proficiency in one does not mean proficiency in the other. Each one contributes to a broader concept of the other.

By conversation, pictures, sketches, and "dramas," motivation can be secured. Pupils may be stimulated to express their interests in drawing.

This declaration is valuable for the teacher who takes advantage of it. One who

takes a stand can readily be made to defend it. When a drawing has been started, a valuable aid has been given the teacher. He must allow the drawings to vary and the speed rates to differ. Each child must vary according to his ability. Suppose the children have decided to draw many different things, as boats, airplanes, or automobiles, the teacher must approach orthographic projection through objects.

Encourage the pupils to draw as many views and pictures as are necessary to give a complete idea to an outsider. Perhaps the number will exceed four or five.

The teacher then goes to the board for a demonstration. With a typical example he questions the size of the various views. Perhaps the top view of the boat is longer than the side view, or perhaps the boat is shown twice as wide across the top as across the back. If this discrepancy appears, the pupil must correct it. Thus he learns that drawings have size. If he cannot correct equivalent dimensions, he is ready for a drill, for he must learn to use the scale.

To teach the scale the teacher makes a freehand sketch of a scale on the board or on a work sheet. Above the sixteenths of the scale are erected at various distances perpendiculars from the zero mark. Above these are placed the letters A, B, C, etc. Below the scale is written "A to B = ?" In like measure B to C, A to C, and sufficient other combinations occur. These may be corrected by another work sheet or by the class. Perhaps there is no relationship between the views as to their location. The pupil is then urged to add pictures which show the same dimensions exactly opposite or below each other.

For example, the length of the boat is identical looking down upon it from the top or looking into it from the side. Why not put one picture directly below the other? How could these two views be more logically located? For the same reason, the

views which show the front and side height are logically placed on the same level.

Contrast this approach with the older method, which began, "Orthographic projection is a means of showing two or more views on planes generally at right angles to each other by erecting perpendiculars from the object to the planes," and ended with a gasp from the class. The next step involved physics and geometry, intersecting lines, planes, and solids. Interest died quickly, for, instead of drawing, the pupil passed to abstract reasoning.

I do not decry the theory of orthographic projection; in fact, I teach it—but not until the child is ready and in need of it. Progress must be from the whole to the part. From the logically complex to the logically simple is the best way to proceed.

If a child has an idea where he is going, he does not need prompting about his destination. In case the teacher needs to do some motivating, he should start the pupil, let him express himself, and then guide him.

We call this work mechanical drawing, but we teach it as has been suggested here. Frequently the children like to begin by drawing a mountain cabin. They know all about it. We motivate their work in various ways: "How about some furniture?" "Don't you know you have mission-style furniture here? You know, that is closely related to the Spanish style." "Aren't you inconsistent here? Look at that window! That isn't an Alaskan window." The child admits his inconsistency and eventually finishes with something that is consistent and that sometimes has beauty.

The children will maintain standards if they are given a chance. If they are not bound down with drawing straight lines, drawing uprights, drawing inclines, they will develop standards for the teacher. Many of them do better work than their teachers could!

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INDIVIDUAL

For an English-Social Studies program

GRAMMAR DRILL

By

VERLIN SPENCER

WHEN the teachers of the South Pasadena Junior High School, under the leadership of G. Derwood Baker, principal, discarded the formal course of study in the English-Social Studies classes and began to guide pupils in the development of a curriculum based on the "here and now," using pupil need and interest to determine content and procedure, they soon felt that their pupils needed a different and also a definite and specific means of acquiring certain fundamental language habits.

With the interest of the pupils as a motivating factor and driving power in class activities, unusual progress was being made in self expression. Pupils were beginning to develop the ability to think and to express their thoughts.

As this expression traveled to a certain point, the vehicle began to be insufficient. The more involved thinking wasn't easily and readily expressed. It was evident that a higher degree of skill in the use of the English language was necessary. Pupils and teachers noticed the deficiency and began casting about for an adequate means of developing the now much needed language skills. A few of the pupils went so far as to ask to be taught formal grammar, thinking that a knowledge of grammar might lead to the development of better language habits.

Different experiments were tried. Teach-

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *It was decided that the pupils in the progressive English-Social Studies program of the South Pasadena Junior High School, South Pasadena, California, needed brushing up on their grammar. So the system of individual grammar drill described here was developed. The author is vice-principal of the school.*

ers tried to determine necessary language work by a careful examination of each pupil's written work. This proved to be unsatisfactory because of the extreme amount of work necessary by the teachers for the detection of a few and not always significant errors.

Others tried short and frequently recurring drill periods in which all the class would drill on certain usage elements, irrespective of the varying needs of the different individuals in the class. This procedure soon developed into an isolated drill period far removed from the needs of each pupil. The diagnostic test was suggested but was not used because it would not bring to light the desired information. A test might show that a pupil had knowledge about certain language forms—but would reveal absolutely nothing about how he used this knowledge in his daily speaking and writing.

The teachers had long since discovered that a pupil's knowledge of desirable language forms did not guarantee his using them when he spoke or wrote. The problem, then, was to devise a means of improving the actual language habits that were in evidence in the pupil's daily speaking and writing.

Teachers were asked to observe and make note of language difficulties that seemed to persist in their classes. These difficulties were arranged on a simple chart in the following manner:

1. I didn't do nothing					
2. Him and me fought					
4. I seen him do it					
5. He done it					

When a pupil had trouble with one of these language forms his initials were put in one of the squares immediately following it. If his initials appeared after this same difficulty several times it was an indication of a bad language habit that was persistent and needed correction. The teacher, a pupil chairman, or the pupil himself then went to a filing case in which the vice-principal had placed several corrective exercises for each language difficulty appearing on the chart, and selected the exercise that would help him to replace his bad language habit with a desirable one.

These exercises had been built with the following objectives in mind:

1. To make the pupil conscious of the fact that improper language habits were impeding the expressing of his thoughts.
2. To provide a means by which the pupil could recognize both right and wrong expressions and be helped to select the right.
3. To provide immediate practice in using the different phases of the correct forms.
4. To make possible, to stimulate, and to check the carry over of the recently learned correct usage into the pupil's ordinary daily language activities.

The exercise began by stating in the upper-left-hand part of the page the difficulty that was being considered, and then informed the pupil that "Your conversation and written work show that you do not know how to use correctly the language forms considered in this exercise. This exercise was prepared to help you *habitually* use the proper forms." A simple but thorough explanation of the correct usage was then given. It was followed by fifteen or sixteen situations in which the pupil practiced using the various phases of this language form.

At the end of the page the pupil was reminded: "The exercise you have just completed doesn't begin to give you the amount of practice necessary to insure correct usage in your daily speaking and writing. You must make it a point to use the correct form during the day as you talk with your

friends on the school ground, at home, or in the classroom."

The next statement referred the pupil to the opposite side of the page where he found two charts, a good-usage chart and a bad-usage chart. Each chart had a cartoon at the top, one portraying the characteristics of the pupil who used good language and the other revealing the traits of the user of inadequate language. Beneath each cartoon was a set of adjectives which tell more about the respective users of good and bad language.

The bad-usage chart was used by one of the pupil's classmates, who recorded the number of times this particular language difficulty appeared in the offender's daily speaking and writing. The pupil who was using the exercise to help himself over a difficulty recorded the frequency of his good usage in his daily speaking and writing in the good-usage chart. He also wrote the sentence in which he used the better language form in a space provided just below the cartoons and charts as evidence of his steadily increasing good habit. This phase of the device proved to be a very effective means of stimulating the carry-over of correct usage in the child's everyday life.

The content of the exercises is continuously changing. Whenever a new or different phase of language difficulty arises in a class it is called to the attention of the vice-principal¹ who immediately builds an exercise that will help the pupil eliminate his

¹ It is practically impossible to administer a progressive school with an administrative staff organized along traditional lines; so Mr. Baker, principal, organized his administrative staff into an educational clinic that considers educational ailments. When the clinic has thoroughly studied and diagnosed a case it is given to one member of the clinic to treat. When treating the case the clinic member is virtually an assistant to the classroom teacher, working with her and for her, and doing all he can to help her and the pupils effect a satisfactory remedy for their educational ailments. Mr. Baker assigned his vice-principal to this particular case dealing with language difficulties. The vice-principal reported the status of the case to the clinic at regular intervals; the clinic, in turn, criticized, advised, and rendered whatever aid the vice-principal needed to further the development of the case.

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difficulty. The fact that the content of the language exercises is continuously changing in light of individual pupil need is one of the outstanding values of the method.

Since the adoption of this method there has been a noticeable improvement in the language habits of the pupils. The teachers and pupils seemed to think that the success of the method was quite largely due to:

1. Its simplicity
2. Its ease of administration

3. The fact that the teachers were not required to do additional work in the preparation and administration of the materials
4. Direct administration to individual needs
5. The emphasis on the development of correct language habits rather than the acquiring of additional knowledge.
6. The provision for carryover into the actual daily speaking and writing activities of each child.

* * FLASHES * *

By MURIEL L. DENIO

... The heckling of the text by the footnotes . . .—J. S. SHAPIRO, quoted in *The Reader's Digest*.

... the fact is that academic faculties still cling to the theory that anybody can teach who knows his subject.—Editorial in *Educational Method*.

Can teachers not help in their teaching to keep alive in America an active sense of the horror, stupidity, and futility of war?—"The Editor's Blotter," *The Teachers College Student Journal*.

If education is to take the brunt of the crime prevention program, it would seem feasible that the school curriculum include material relative to the civil and criminal law of the state.—WILLIAM J. HAGENY, *New York State Education*.

One of the most depressing situations for classroom teachers to face is the fact that the only persons who know directly and specifically of her work are pupils—and pupils have little voice in any professional recognition of teachers.—S. CAROLYN AUSTIN, *New York State Education*.

It is quite possible that the working class may transfuse into art and education the red tide of vitality which annoys us so by continually ebbing away. The mature workingman who listens for a lecture or two to a college professor talking about economics and then, rising, leaves the room energetically, casting over his shoulder earnestly "Oh Hell, I can't STAND this!" may do more to electrify a perfectly good professor into real teaching than generations of educational conventions asking themselves what is the matter with our theories of pedagogy.—DOROTHY CANFIELD FISHER, quoted in *The Teachers College Student Journal*.

WHAT OTHERS SAY

Edited by LAURA TERRY TYLER

WE HAVE reached the mid-way point in the second term and the end of the school year approaches. It would be interesting to know what proportion of our teachers and students in the secondary schools consider the remaining weeks a race which may develop into a hectic scramble as the preparation gains momentum. If each year of a pupil's school life must be regarded as a competitive struggle to maintain one's place in the ranks of the runners, those in charge of the contest should use great care and skill in assembling the lists of entries lest many feel outclassed at the start. School seems to be the only place where all of the participants in the final events, regardless of speed or condition, must breast the finishing tape at the same time.

For those interested in curriculum revision:

The Slow-Learning Pupil

There is good reason for believing that the fundamental cause of wide-spread dissatisfaction with the curriculum of the high school lies in the fact that the existing curriculum has not been created for, nor adjusted to, the lower levels of intelligence. One can go into practically any high school and find a goodly proportion of the pupils attempting to do tasks which in difficulty are four or five years beyond their mental ages.

The problem of the slow-learning pupil is the most important one now before the American school system. We must do something if our institutions are to be intelligently improved and surely preserved. It is not likely that our institutions and our democratic experience will be destroyed by outside forces from Germany, Russia, or Italy. Rather, they are threatened from within our own borders when we neglect

to provide an appropriate education for the vast crowd of unadjusted pupils who are now passing through our junior and senior high schools. One reason why this nation is becoming so politically and socially volatile lies no doubt in the fact that a number of young people are going through our schools without learning to do their own thinking when confronted by problems involving alternative solutions.—RALEIGH SCHORLING, *The Educational Forum*, January 1937.

A return to fundamental training in essentials?

Curricular Reform—What?

The present tendency in school practices is to exalt innovation above solid achievement. If securing a command of fundamentals and actually acquiring a definite body of knowledge are no longer objectives in educational procedures, there is no incentive for advancing carefully and assuming a scientific attitude in launching experimental projects, because, regardless of the outcomes, the innovators can always fall back on the comforting thought that they are teaching children, not subject matter.

In these stirring days of curricular transition and change, we know that we are on our way, but our destination is uncertain; we are not sure whether we have reached our objective or overrun it. Sufficient thought has not been given to the outcomes or the goals to be achieved. Mere change itself is often considered synonymous with progress.

If the youths in our schools are to be more than wanderers in an educational fairyland and are to be trained to face successfully the problems of our perplexing world of today and to win a place in it, instruction in subject-matter is vitally important.

The hurried efforts to initiate new programs, to rush untried ideas into practice, and to achieve a Utopian triumph in a minimum of time reminds one of a losing football team trying desperately for a last-minute victory by tossing indiscriminately pass after pass, hoping by some miracle of fate to secure a touchdown and win the game in the closing seconds of play.—ERNEST G. BISHOP, *California Journal of Secondary Education*, January 1937.

Everyone learns:

When Parents Go to School

How many of us think that parents and patrons are old-fashioned in their thinking about schools? They might fool us if they were given an opportunity. The best method for eliminating destructive criticism of the school is keeping the public well-informed and bringing the educational philosophy of the parents and patrons up-to-date. This belief helped the schools of Reading, Michigan, to accomplish a better parent-school relationship and understanding.

Some months ago the Reading Schools tried the experiment of setting aside three full days for a Parent Institute, and no evening meetings were planned. The purpose of this institute was to acquaint parents with the schools and their operation and to build a stronger parent-school relationship.

During the days the Institute was in session, the high school pupils stayed home to mind the house and do the chores while father and mother attended school from 9:45 A.M. till 3:30 P.M., with one hour and a quarter out for noon lunch.

Parents were enrolled in classes and assigned to rooms. The three-day program was divided into units. The first day's course of study was on the school, its objectives, the curriculum content, and how it operates. The second day's program was a series of lectures on health. The third day's lec-

tures were on the subjects of mental hygiene and sex hygiene. The program was augmented by addresses by well-known educators on various topics of unusual interest.

The Institute proved so beneficial and the parents were so enthusiastic that they voted in favor of starting an educational forum to be held one evening each month as a follow-up program for the Institute.—C. B. PARK, *Michigan Education Journal*.

Before coöperation can be taught, it must be learned:

Can We Teach Coöperation?

We live in a period of unrest and readjustment. The schools are constantly being appraised by the general public as agencies of social reconstruction. Various new demands are being made upon them. Of these demands, the one which appeals both to the man on the street and to teachers as most reasonable is that the schools should teach "coöperation" explicitly.

The great problems of our day are social in character—abolition of unemployment, insecurity, war, poverty, ignorance and crime; the development of personal and social integrity—and social problems call for social solutions. It is reasonable to demand that the schools give the types of training the individual needs to be able to live successfully in a democracy. But today the "teaching of coöperation" is little more than a problem and a challenge.

If the schools are to fulfill their function, they *must* develop skill in coöperation to a high degree. But at present teachers are unprepared to give such training, and would run some risk in giving it if they were prepared. In view of all the elements in the situation, the demand that the schools teach coöperation calls for serious reflection and coöperative effort on the part of all school agents to meet the demand. Isn't this a good time to learn to coöperate by making efforts to solve this pressing problem "coöoperatively"?—S. A. COURTIS, University of Michigan, *School of Education Bulletin*.

► EDITORIAL ◄

The Community Secondary School

THE URBAN high school at the very moment of climax is becoming conscious that it is already a decadent and outmoded institution.

On the one hand are those critics and prophets of gloom who decry the progressive deterioration and debilitation of the high school as it attempts to adjust itself to the realities of modern life—compulsory school attendance laws, the changing mores of youths and adults, and the decreasing faith of teachers and parents in the efficacy of traditional academicism to prepare youths for an emerging technological world of civic-economic conflict and coöperation.

On the other hand are the evidences that, as Dr. Spaulding points out in his address which appears in this number of the CLEARING HOUSE, a majority of youths are not responding eagerly even to the diluted or enriched (take your choice!) curriculum and activities and guidance provisions which have been introduced to meet the problems of the non-docile, non-academic pupils who are compelled by law and by parental ambition to attend the general high school.

Meantime other schools for adolescents that have been growing in importance during the past two decades are being rather suddenly discovered and recognized.

The continuation-vocational schools serving youths and adults have emerged during the depression years. In New York they already enroll nearly 15,000 full-time pupils and operate with great freedom from the institutional restrictions and absurdities of grade "standards" and promotions based on "lesson learning" and re-citations and verbal examinations.

Public and private adult-education projects—forums, classes, "opportunity schools," settlement houses, orchestras, art groups,

and other civic-social-recreational, and esthetic projects—serve youths of high school and post-high school ages, and are gaining status in the public mind as *schools*. Similarly the CCC camps, NYA and WPA projects, summer camps, nature study and outing clubs, libraries and museums, F.F.A., 4-H, Junior Achievement, and High-School Leaders Clubs, American Youth Congress, peace societies, and of course the old standbys—Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Y.M.H.A., Big Brothers, boys' clubs, service-club committees—all claim space in the press and on the radio, and so impinge on the public consciousness as educational undertakings.

Finally, the resettlement, reclamation, subsistence, farm-and-factory, and rural electrification projects stand at the threshold of public awareness as educational ventures, and, hence, "schools."

Over against these and many similar institutions and undertakings and influences which are generally approved by socially-oriented persons, there may be noted other potent modifying environments. There are those many, and as yet little understood, influences that make for juvenile delinquency, intolerance, rabid nationalism, political favoritism and dishonesties; for unwise uses of foods, drugs, and cosmetics, sexual promiscuity, low levels of appreciation and conversation, crude and obnoxious voices and manners, and drab conformities of dress, beliefs, and behaviors.

Whether these influences are merely negative and inert or actively vicious, their educational significance is increasingly recognized by all alert citizens.

Movements for slum clearance, for universal employment, for parks and playgrounds, for esthetic opportunities and environments, for humane and intelligent

treatment of offenders and for underprivileged youths and adults, for liberalism and tolerance, for sanitary, safe, and propitious working conditions, and for international, inter-racial, inter-class, and inter-sectarian understandings and sympathies are responses to the untoward conditions. In the broadest sense of the word, these movements are educational controls; they affect public opinion and coöperative action. They, too, are schools, even though not as yet generally recognized as such.

To all the challenges and opportunities listed above, alert school faculties are making some responses. Consumer education, coöperative economy, labor problems, housing, population, politics, crime, social-political ideologies, causes of war, health, and safety, moving pictures, radio, newspapers, and magazines, conservation, relief, esthetics, recreation, and other responses to community concerns, are all approvable manifestations of an awareness of the school's community function. They are indeed evidences of the beginnings of a new educational orientation, the revolutionary

character of which is only vaguely outlined.

Can the public high school move rapidly and radically enough to harmonize its curriculum and its procedures and its institutional character so as to serve as a coördinating, a kinetic, and, hence, a preparatory center for the many and diverse educational undertakings and experiential environments with which youths and adults are or should be concerned? Can it reenforce, guide, and direct the attentions and attitudes that promise most for individual and social welfare? Can it compete with, and to a degree offset, the undesirable environments and incentives that tend to impoverish or subvert democratic life and personal character?

If the public high school can do these things quickly and effectively, it may gain a new and wholesome public support and an enthusiastic loyalty of youths for its educational program rather than for its football teams. It will then have become a community school, deserving and receiving the loyal support of all alert and intelligent and positive citizens, young and old.

P.W.L.C.

John Dewey Discusses Democracy and Education

Speaking before the Department of Superintendence on "Democracy and Education," John Dewey made the following significant statements:

"Democracy is so often and so naturally associated in our minds with freedom of action that we forget to some extent the importance of the freed intelligence which is necessary to direct and to warrant freedom of action. The democratic principle is that each individual has a right to develop his natural capacities and that this development is prevented, or at all events distorted, unless he has the opportunity to have an active share in the formation of the ends which govern his action.

"This principle applies with peculiar force to the administration of school systems. Every teacher should have some regular organic way in which he can, directly or through representatives democratically chosen, participate in the formation of the controlling aims, methods, and materials of his school.

SCHOOL LAW REVIEW

TENURE LAW *not a GESTURE*

By DANIEL R. HODGDON, Ph.D., J.D.

WHERE a board of education dismissed fourteen teachers on tenure by transferring them to a school and discontinuing the school, the court held that the board could not dismiss tenure teachers so long as teachers not on tenure were employed by the city.

Since there were seven teachers not on the tenure, seven of the dismissed teachers must be re-employed and the teachers not on tenure dismissed. The board so replaced these teachers. Later seven more positions were vacant; and the board, in an apparent effort to circumvent the tenure law, employed seven teachers not protected by tenure of office in the guise of economy in place of the teachers having tenure. They called the new teachers substitute teachers.

The court of New Jersey rendered one of the most positive and remarkable decisions handed down this year, totally in accord with the spirit of the tenure law, and a decision which many courts could follow for its justice and its fairness. Following are some of the points made:

The court, in a severe reprimand on law evasion, said the Tenure Act is not a gesture, but a provision of law to protect teachers in their positions by reason of years of service. While in the interest of economy reduction in number may be made, those having tenure should have a preference in reappointment where vacancies occur.

It is immaterial that seven special substitute teachers may take the place of those who have since retired or resigned. The seven persons designated as special substitute teachers were actually continually employed. The action of the board was the merest subterfuge to defeat the legislative purpose, the decision of the state board of education, and the courts of the state.

All the technicalities and niceties of the law raised were waived aside by the court, which stuck directly to the aim and spirit behind the legislative purpose in enacting a tenure law. If all cases were decided on such a clear basis there would be less quibbling about what the tenure law really meant. (*113 New Jersey Law 401, 174 A 529; Downs et al. vs. Board of Education of Hoboken District 13 N.J. Misc. 853, 181 Atl. 688 District 5, 1935.*)

Leave for Childbirth

Where a teacher on tenure requests a leave of absence for two and one half months for the purpose of giving birth to a child and the Board of Education has a regulation giving a married teacher a period of two years' leave of absence, the board may require the teacher to take such length of leave, since a period of two years for such a purpose is not unreasonable. *Kabatt v. Bd. of Ed. of City of Elmira; 284 N.Y.S. 845, 246 App. Div. 886. Jan. 23, 1936, Appeal dismissed, 271 N.Y. 629, 3 N.E. (2nd) 456, June 2, 1936.*

Substitute Teacher Has No Permanent Status

After a teacher has served three probationary years and is elected to serve the fourth year as a substitute teacher for two-thirds of each school day, she does not obtain the status of permanent teacher by reason of such election.

The statute provided that a probationary employee who in any one school year has served for at least 75 per cent of the number of school days maintained by the school district, shall be deemed to have served a complete school year. The statute further provided that after a teacher has served three years, and has been reelected for the next succeeding school year to a position requiring certification qualifications, she shall at the commencement of the succeeding school year be classified as a permanent employee.

The court in a very narrow interpretation of the law felt that because the teacher was designated as a substitute teacher, although she taught every day of the school year, she was not required to have the certification of a permanent teacher. It can hardly be said that a substitute teacher is one who teaches every day of the year in the same position. Such a view has not been sustained by legal authority, as it is not a true definition of a substitute who is supposed to fill a temporary vacancy until a regular teacher is employed, or to take the place of a regular teacher who is absent. In this case she was the regu-

her teacher of the classes, although she served but two-thirds of each day.

The court held that since the teacher was employed at the beginning of the fourth year under the guise of a substitute teacher she could not be considered as reelected for another year, but only as employed from day to day. "The fact," says the court, "that she was allowed to work two-thirds of each school day is a mere circumstance. Whether she worked one day during the year or every day makes no difference. In either case she was merely a substitute."

The holding in this case can hardly be considered to be in accord with the spirit of the tenure act—especially in view of the fact that other courts have considered that a teacher obtains tenure the moment she begins to teach on the fourth year, whether she teaches one hour or one year.

The spirit of the tenure law is to provide for a probationary period in which the board can determine the qualifications of a teacher. When the board sees fit to employ a teacher beyond the probationary time, it is usually deemed that the purpose of the law has been fulfilled, and that her services are satisfactory, or the board would not employ the teacher.

This case opens the way for unscrupulous boards of education to evade the spirit and purpose of the tenure law. As to whether this teacher would have been employed unless employed in this manner is clearly immaterial and irrelevant. *Hogsett v. Beverly Hills School District*, Cal., 53 P (2nd) 1909 March 19, 1926.

When Probationary Year May Be Fixed by Board

If a state statute is silent as to the number of teaching days required in any one year for one full year of probationary service, although a minimum number of days is fixed for a school year, the board of education and the teacher may contract for a definite number of days to cover one year of probationary teaching.

Where a board had provision in the contracts with its teachers that 195 days of actual teaching shall constitute one probationary year of teaching, a teacher who has not completed 195 days of actual teaching must continue to teach until the correct number of days has been completed, before the right to tenure is acquired.

A teacher was credited with 184 days of actual teaching in one school year, and was absent for 16 days on account of illness. But he was given credit for four days out of the 16 because of being quarantined, and was given a further credit of ten day's

excused absence on account of illness, at half pay, or five full days. The remaining 2 days were charged against him for unexcused absence. His total paid teaching days were 193, or 2 short of the required minimum fixed by the board of education.

A board of education has the power to make rules fixing a required minimum number of days' attendance for a complete school year of teaching, and to make a schedule of excusable absences. The contract between the board and the teacher governs the amount of service required, since there is no conflict between the rules of the board and the state statute—and a length of service of actually less than the required paid days shall not give the right to a permanent status until those days are made up by teaching service.

This provision in a contract will however not prevent the teacher from receiving the increment or increase in salary for any calendar year where such teaching service is not less than the minimum number of days required for a school year, which in this case was 150 teaching days. *Richardson v. Board of Education of Los Angeles City School Districts*. Cal. 51 P (2nd) 1162, (Jan. 1, 1936).

Contract Salary Must Be Paid

When a board of education has contracted with teachers to teach in the public schools at a certain salary, and the legislature thereafter limits the board to a certain per cent of the levies of any year, which per cent does not provide a sufficient sum to meet these contracts and pay the teachers, the board cannot pay the teachers less than the amount contracted for.

The constitution forbids the passage of any act impairing the obligation of a contract. Therefore such legislation would be unconstitutional. Sufficient amount must be raised to meet the obligation under contract. *Fannin et al. v. Board of Education of Barboursville Joint District High School et al. West Virginia*, 165 S.E. 542, Sept. 7, 1932.

When Tenure Salaries May Be Reduced

An entirely different case is presented when contracts of teachers of tenure are made under a statute which limits the amount that can be raised by taxation for education.

A board of education adopted a uniform salary schedule under which teachers with the equivalent training and experience were paid equal salaries, no matter in what grade a teacher serves. In the state there was a statute which provided that a board

of education must not levy a tax upon assessed valuation of property in the city exceeding a certain per cent (20 mills on each dollar) of the assessed valuation.

During the depression property values decreased from \$80,000,000 to \$56,000,000. In order to pay the teachers the salaries contracted for and contained in the schedule, it would be necessary for the board to exceed the tax limitation. This they had no power to do.

Since values of property had decreased, and the salary schedule adopted exceeded the amount the board could raise legally by taxation, the board had the implied power to reduce salaries on an equitable basis to be within the amount that could be legally raised by taxation. This is according to an old legal principle that contracts made by boards of education are subject to the statutes in the state. And where a board of education has restricted powers, it cannot exceed such powers. The salary schedule is dependent upon this power and is modified thereby.

The court held further that the board of education must provide each year by tax levy the funds necessary to carry on the schools for that year. Its contracts and expenses must be confined to the same period. It may not contract debts to be met by tax levies of subsequent school boards.

Of course, it must be borne in mind, that where a statute provides tenure and salary schedules, the board of education as a mere agent of the state is really not contracting for subsequent boards as the state has fixed the procedure. *Sutton v. Board of Education of the City of Duluth, Minn.* 266 N.W. 447, April 9, 1936.

What Is Physical Fitness to Teach?

A teacher satisfactorily passed all examinations to teach in New York City which would give her the right to tenure as soon as she completed her probationary period, such as the written examination, teaching test, and oral test, and in each was qualified to teach. But she was failed on her physical examination on the ground that she was not physically fit due to overweight.

In all other particulars her health appears to be excellent. The question presented was whether the board of education had a right to prescribe a by-law imposing a physical standard of this type upon a teacher. There appears no technical or expert evidence in the decision that her weight would in any way mitigate her teaching ability.

The teacher was given six months to lose weight. But she did not lose sufficient weight to meet the

demands of the board, so the license to teach was denied her.

May a board determine whether a teacher is too fat, too lean, too skinny, too tall, or too short to be a teacher regardless of ability to teach, and regardless of her education or training?

Was it an arbitrary regulation regarding physical fitness, bordering upon a particular prejudice of the ones intrusted to give the physical examination? The decision is entirely silent in this matter, and lacks a legal thoroughness that dissatisfies the many critics of this case. To what extent may the physical examination go to deny a teacher a right to teach? The decision leaves the matter in the dark.

The commissioner did not attempt clearly to settle the question on its merits, or as to the correctness of the physical examination, since the appeal was not taken until about four years after the examination. The appeal was dismissed on the ground of laches because of the unnecessary delay. *Rose Freistater vs. Board of Education, City of New York*, 53 St. Dept. Report 178, March 2, 1936.

Certificate Right

A teacher's right under her teacher's certificate cannot be abridged or restricted by any clause in her contract of employment.

Execution of new contract between teacher and school district did not terminate tenure of a teacher who had taught for more than five successive years immediately prior to execution of contract, since legislature did not intend to terminate tenure. *Tuygart vs. School District No. 52, Carroll Co.* 88 S.W. (2nd) 447 (Mo.), Dec. 2, 1935.

Damages for Breach

When a teacher is on tenure and has a contract to teach and is able, ready, and willing to perform, and the board of education refuses to assign her to a school, but assigns a new teacher to her position, the contract of employment is broken.

The teacher is entitled to recover the salary as damages. When the jury which hears the case returns a general verdict in favor of the teacher, it necessarily finds that the teacher has proved every material averment needed for recovery. Such a verdict does not necessarily find that the teacher is entitled to recover the amount alleged to be due. The measure of damages for breach of contract involving the furnishing of personal services of a teacher is *prima facie* the consideration agreed to be paid.

It can be shown, however, in mitigation of damages, that the teacher might have secured other employment during contract period. (*Indiana*)

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BOOK REVIEWS

You Have to Write Letters, by HERBERT L. PRESCOTT. Portland, Maine: Platform News Publishing Co., 19 page booklet, 1936, 20 cents; teacher's guide, 10 cents.

This pamphlet contains 17 units on the letter-writing phase of English study, each of which may occupy one or two classroom periods of work.

Drawings and Drafting Room Practice, prepared by a committee of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. New York: American Society of Mechanical Engineers, 1935, 24 pages.

This thoroughly illustrated booklet offers a series of standardized practices for mechanical drawing, which are approved by the American Standards Association.

Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies, by LEON C. MARSHALL and RACHEL M. GOETZ. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. 242 pages.

This volume is Part XIII of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. Its subtitle is "A social

process approach," by which the authors mean a new and somewhat revolutionary philosophy and practice of curriculum procedure.

This new attack on the curriculum problem involves a grouping of the many human activities under great social processes that are common to almost all peoples. Since all pupils have themselves engaged in the typical social processes which would thus be systematically studied, they would have an experiential basis on which to place their cogitations and research and upon which to test their hypotheses.

Of the processes around which the authors would organize the social studies, the first three deal with Adjustments to the External Physical World: (1) Learning to Manipulate Forces and Materials; (2) Economic Organization; (3) The Distribution of Population; the fourth, Biological Continuance and Conservation; the fifth and sixth deal with Guiding Human Motivation (Establishing Value Standards or Norms, and Securing Minimum Adherence to Value Standards); the seventh involves Developing and Operating the Agencies of Social Organization; the eighth, Cultural Continuance and Cultural Change; and the ninth, Personality Moulding.

The food of the lion brings indigestion to the wolf.—Arabian Proverb

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No curriculum maker and no social-studies teacher can afford to neglect this book. It is not easy reading. Its ideas are unfamiliar. Rereadings are frequently necessary. But the clarity of thinking that results from the inevitable cogitation repays the effort a thousand fold. P. W. L. C.

Current Social Problems: A Survey of Contemporary Problems in Their Relation to Education, by WILLIAM WITHERS in collaboration with AGNES SNYDER, and CARLTON QUALEY. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936, 302 pages, \$2.80.

There are freshness and forthrightness in this book that are stimulating and welcome. Its basis is the curriculum of New College, where such problems as are here presented serve as the core of the curriculum for students preparing to teach.

The book is organized into units. The first four deal with the character of modern civilization; the other seven, with the development of modern civilization. Each unit consists of an introductory statement made up of succinct pungent paragraphs that must startle the complacent students, a study outline with reading references and thought questions, interspersed by explanations and comments which serve to keep the reader oriented as he progresses. In some of the later units, the directions even apply

to the instructor who is advised at which points examinations should be given.

Current Social Problems will surely receive well deserved recognition from teachers of college and advanced high-school classes. It provides the material for the encouragement of inquiring, challenging intelligences, such as must be preserved by at least a vigorous minority if democracy is to achieve itself.

The Foundations of Modern Education, by ELMER HARRISON WILDS, published by Farrar & Rinehart, New York, 1936, 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ pages.

While its title seems to disguise the fact, this book is in essence a history of education. It differs from the usual texts in the field in that it treats its subjects topically. Thus it adorns its pages with material on "The Preservation of Social Stability, the Development of Individuality, An Emphasis Upon Utilitarianism, and The Beginning of Humanitarianism."

The book is well organized for teaching purposes. Doses are administered to the students in the form of units rather than chapters. The volume should make its best appeal in teacher training schools rather than in the more lofty collegiate schools of education.

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the book adds nothing new to our existing historical textbooks. It certainly cannot be compared with the best of them. Like most American histories of education, it has pathetically little to say concerning the development of education after 1914.

ADOLPH E. MEYER

Mathematics for Everyday Use, by JOHN C. STONE and V. S. MALLORY. Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, 1935, 532 pages, \$1.28.

The preparation of this book involved carefully supervised and measured experimental practices in schools which varied in size and in pupil-membership. It aims to fit the needs of those high-school pupils who are not expecting to go to college—though what need most college students would have for mathematics other than that contained in this book, the reviewer cannot imagine. Here are included the mathematics of appreciation, of use, of application, of interpretation, and of adventure. Banking and saving and insurance and health and surveying and graphs and scale drawing—all are here plus forty-five pages called Supplementary Work in Algebra. It thus provides types of experiences involving mathematics for senior high schools like those which junior high school pupils have frequently enjoyed.

Music Integration in the Junior High School, by LILLA BELLE PITTS. Boston: C. C. Birchard and Company, 206 pages, \$2.50.

Music in the Junior High School, by K. W. GEHRKENS. Boston: C. C. Birchard and Company, 1936, 228 pages, \$2.50.

Seldom has any educational group been faced by a more revolutionary challenge than have music teachers by the junior high school. During the period of its earlier development from 1910 to 1915, musicians paid almost no attention to it. By 1918, however, music supervisors in progressive systems had become aware that a new and critical problem had to be faced.

For the spirit of the junior high school was new. It was positive, active, vibrant, and emotionalized. It was tolerant, joyous, creative, expansive, purposeful, and confident. In it pupils sought and found opportunities for expression of many kinds and at varying levels of achievement. In it pupils sang and danced and developed bugle and drum corps, bands, orchestras. Teachers of English, art, shop, science, and all other subjects shared in the spontaneous and free spirit of the boys and girls. Those among them who had musical interests coached or participated in the children's musical organizations. Standards were frequently low, no

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48 pp. Paper, 50 cents.

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doubt; but sincerity and camaraderie characterized it all and infused it with vitality.

From all of this musical activity, music supervisors and special teachers too often stood aloof. They were so superior to the popular music, the school songs, the sentimental exaggerations of war and lonesomeness and love and triumph, that they just did not belong. There simply was no place for the time-beating, hatchet-faced scale drillers in this new environment. They gladly accepted recommended transfers to other schools, thereby relieving the principal and his staff, and themselves avoiding commitment to sanitoriums or asylums.

During the decade and a half following the War, however, there has emerged a new generation of music teachers and supervisors. Of this mutation, Miss Pitts is an outstanding example. In her daily practice, she humanized music so that every pupil in her classes came to express himself and, to a degree, to realize a richer and finer self, through music. In the volume here reviewed, she makes her successful experience available for all junior-high-school teachers. As the title suggests, music to Miss Pitts is not divorced from the rest of the curriculum, nor from life outside the school. It has its own technical and specific problems; the author treats them adequately in her book. But she is more interested in the personalities of boys and girls than she is in the specialized hocus-pocus of exactitude.

Professor Gehrken has approached his problem with fresh and generous spirit. He treats of institutional organization and orientation. His chapters deal with the changing curriculum, the assembly, glee clubs, instrumental classes and organizations, theory classes, private teachers, and institutional problems.

Every junior-high-school principal and supervisor and, of course, every junior-high-school music teacher, should know these books. They should inspire each one to expand his own personality and so to lead youths and adults to find in music sincere and tolerant joy.

Redirecting Education, edited by REXFORD G. TUGWELL and LEON H. KEYSERLING. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935. Volume I, *The United States*, 273 pages. Volume II, *Europe and Canada*, 285 pages. Each, \$3.

The first of these volumes deals primarily with the redirection of education, especially in the social sciences, in American colleges. Sections are devoted to social objectives in society, social objectives in college, economics, history, and political science, each section by a different author. This book will prove valuable to students of education, especially to participants in the changing college curriculum.

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The second volume treats education and its social connotations in its various levels and phases in other countries. The seven sections, each prepared by an authority in the area treated, deal with German, English, French, Soviet Union, Italian, Danish, and Canadian education. This book has been prepared by social scientists primarily for social scientists because they are so fundamentally interested in the social objectives of society and in education as one means for attaining these objectives. For this very reason, the book is of great importance for American schoolmen, who will be aided through a thoughtful reading of this volume to grasp more clearly the desirable orientation of our public schools to the social purposes of American democracy.

Vocations Through Problems, by J. B. EDMONSON and ARTHUR DONDINEAU. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, 233 pages, 96 cents.

How are youths to face the problem of choosing a vocation in a period when unemployment and surplus workers are characteristic of almost, if not quite every, occupation? Social momentum keeps them in school and college in very large numbers; social inertia keeps the majority in the educational

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grooves of preparation for occupations and status that promise little of opportunity or security. Since adults are themselves uncertain regarding the possible and desirable solutions of the impasse, it might be justifiable not to disturb the situation. We might mark time until the rival economies of profits and of general prosperity work out the compromises and thus furnish some orientation for vocational guidance.

The authors of *Vocations Through Problems*, recognizing the difficulty of the problem and the responsibility of the school officer who would assist youths to prepare for life-work in so confused a world, have determined to accept the challenge. They frankly face the fact that conditions of unemployment are worse than they formerly were; they hold out the hope that pupils may, nevertheless, exercise their personal initiative in the selection of a vocation with reasonable assurance that they may find employment in it.

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As a title, *Vocations Through Problems* sets an impossible goal for a book or a course in a school. But the book itself provides an enlightening experience for students who use it.

The Frantic Physician. Music by GOUNOD; play by MOLIÈRE; music arranged by MARSHALL BARTHOLOMEW; libretto and adaptation by ALEXANDER DEAN. Complete Edition. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1935, 210 pages, \$4.

If we must draw upon the classics to furnish high-school youths with the best musical and dramatic taste, then by all means let us occasionally tap the well-springs of glorious tomfoolery which permits the pupils to work in the spirit of play. Here is a riotous farce with satire set to sparkling music by immortals.

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Beside the libretto and piano-vocal score, this edition contains the Director's Book, explaining the characters, production, scene settings, etc. The Introductory Notes include biographical sketches of Gounod and Molière, the argument of the play, portraits, and costume plates.

This beautiful book is artistic in such a degree that ownership is itself sufficient to secure loyalty to the operetta project and to assure continued exploration of its contents and its possibilities.

Creative School Music, by LILLIAN M. FOX and L. THOMAS HOPKINS. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1936, 326 pages, \$3.

"The teacher is like a lookout man in the National Forest Service," says the authors. "The crucial moment in the vocation of each comes when he sees the smoke from some incipient fire. Only the teacher's duty is wisely feeding, not extinguishing, the flames." In this book, the teacher who conceives himself and his opportunities in this light will find inspiration, orientation, and specific help.

Part I deals with the modern concept of education as creative experience; Part II, with methods of aiding children to develop creative expression in music; Part III presents examples of creative expression among children from nursery school to

junior-high-school age. Throughout, the emphasis is on behaviors and desires of youths; knowledge as such is secondary—and inevitable if projects are enthusiastically and whole-heartedly worked out.

To the reviewer, the examples chosen seem frequently forced and schoolish. The principles and spirit are splendid, however. One may hope that teachers who are so fortunate as to own this book will have imagination enough to apply the technics recommended to the more spontaneous situations of school life—school songs, assemblies, athletic enthusiasm, glee clubs, orchestras, and the rest.

Problems of Our Times, Volume II, Economic and Social Planning, by DUDLEY S. BRAINARD and LESLIE D. ZELENY. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1936, 350 pages, \$1.48.

The first of this series, *Fundamental National Issues*, was reviewed in this magazine in the February 1936 issue. The second and third volumes fulfill the promise of the first. They deal with the current social-civic scene. The sweeping social, economic, and political changes of the post-war period and especially those contemporary with the Hoover and Roosevelt administrations are of crucial importance. If democracy is to deal with them intelligently and consistently they must be studied,

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This series should find wide-spread use among discriminating and alert high-school teachers of problems of democracy, economics, and sociology.

P. W. L. C.

*American Democracy and Social Change*, by E. E. WALKER, W. G. BEACH, and A. G. JAMISON. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. 687 pages.

The twelfth-grade course in Problems of Democracy has attracted the efforts of many writers and publishers during the past five years. The depression, the public discussion of the Technocrats' forebodings, the Reports of President Hoover's Commissions, the general interest in the New Deal, and the challenges of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, have all combined to make of this course the most tantalizing and dangerous and potentially significant aspect of the entire secondary-school curriculum.

The volume here reviewed consists of eleven units, each subdivided into two to four topics and followed by an organizing outline and exercises. These units deal with the people, the institutions and traditions, public opinion and popular government, the standard of living, productive enterprise, rural and urban problems, the Constitution, financing government, political trends and philosophies, and international interests and obligations. The text is illustrated with pictures and diagrams.

The treatment of these units is clear and adequate. The book deserves the wide-spread use that surely awaits it.

*Education and the Psychology of Thinking*, by PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936, 306 pages, \$2.50.

The author's account of his purpose and method of preparing this book is most interesting. It is, he explains, an outgrowth of his efforts to satisfy his

curiosity and the desire to know more about the world and its problems.

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curiosity about the nature of the thinking process. He endeavored to analyze the responses of a group of graduate students in a series of meetings, at each of which one type of mental processes was stimulated by appropriate questions.

Following an introductory chapter of orientation and historical résumé, the author presents his analysis of various thought processes: learning meanings of words, terms, or phrases; statements of relationships; formulating a question; classification; formulating a definition; providing illustrations or examples; selective recall; selection of basis of comparison; comparison of a single designated basis; evaluating recall; outlining; summarizing; generalizing; problem solving; explanation; application; making a decision; criticism; and discussion. In connection with his treatment of each of these functioning thought processes, he reviews the appropriate results of previous investigations. To what extent his own conclusions are derived from his observations of his experimental groups, from his own rich background of knowledge and experience, and from the results of others' experimentation, it is impossible to guess.

Part III contains more systematic reflections regarding the outcomes of his study: Analysis of thinking; imperfections in thinking; what education can do to improve thinking; testing thinking; and educational research as a method of thinking. To what extent the author's novel approach to the study of a functional psychology of learning is of great value may be doubtful; as a piece of pioneering it is thoroughly commendable.

*Education as Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes*, by CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD, ERNST L. BRESLICH, J. M. McCALISTER, RALPH W. TYLER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, vii + 201 pages, \$2.

To be more rational has for centuries been the goal of serious students of man's affairs. For at least three decades since Dewey's *How We Think*, reflective thinking has been a stated aim of many texts, syllabi, and school curricula. Mr. Judd and his associates have at long last cut through the mass of pious praise of the thinking process with a direct attack on some of our antiquated assumptions.

In the introduction Mr. Judd takes the position that school education should move on to a higher plane. Specifically he means that the time has come when the emphasis should be placed on the improvement of the pupil's ability to make inferences, make and apply generalizations, and perform the other higher mental processes. This new emphasis would lessen the present day concentration on the memori-

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zation of the facts in the book for a factual test.

In chapter II Mr. Tyler attacks the implied assumption on which the educative process has been universally conducted—that the person who remembers the most facts is the person who can most expertly carry on the higher mental processes. In chapter III the point is made that verbal memory does not necessarily indicate analysis and comparison on an advanced level. Mr. McCallister reports in chapter VI a study of the widespread assumption that courses in natural science teach pupils to think.

In the final chapter on application, presumably written by Mr. Judd, the basic premise is applied to the question of systematic versus opportunistic organization of subject matter, examinations, reading, the transfer of training and supervised study.

An enthusiast for the position that the memorization of even interesting material is a relatively futile process will hail this book as a landmark. This same enthusiast will be disappointed in the implied defense of mathematics as a disciplinary subject and in the absence of concrete suggestions relative to classroom methodology and the selection and organization of subject matter by which the cultivation of the higher mental processes may be made actual in the classroom.

Mr. Judd has long fought the battle for a con-

centration on generalized intellectual abilities which may be transferred to wider, varied and unpredictable situations, in contradistinction to the inculcation of specific information by a memorizing process. In this book he has made a distinct step. It is hoped he will shortly take up the task of developing materials and methods by which to effect the necessary transformation in the work of the classroom.

ROBERT W. FREDERICK

*Fundamentals of Psychologic Guidance*, by ALBERT J. LEVINE. Brooklyn, New York: Educational Monograph Press, 1936.

This book of 96 pages should be quite suggestive to those members of schools' faculties whose duties include the systematic counselling and guidance of students. The author states and explains with considerable force and clarity certain principles and procedures of guidance, synthesized from the evidence furnished by case studies in mental hygiene. The several chapters deal with the qualifications of a counselor, therapeutic procedures, techniques in interviewing and testing, and a series of "Do's" and "Don'ts" for counselors.

The point of view of the author, as well as the suggestion he makes, seem to the reviewer to be both sound and helpful. GLENN S. THOMPSON

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